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ABSTRACT

This publication of the Iowa School Social Workers' Association is dedicated to the enhancement of social work practice in schools. Within the social work profession, school social workers may find themselves on the cutting edge and forefront of issues affecting students. The articles in these journals attempt to provide comprehensive knowledge about human behavior and to help refine social worker's skills to address the concerns they encounter. Included in this volume are articles on leaders in school social work; reducing school-based bullying; and mentoring African American mothers and daughters from violent environments. A special international issue includes articles on the growing international profession of school social work, and school social work practice and research in Slovakia, Switzerland, Korea, Saudi Arabia, and Ghana. Each issue contains numerous references. (GCP)

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IOWA SCHOOL SOCIAL WORKERS' ASSOCIATION

... serving home, school, and community

JOURNAL OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK

Volume 12, No. 1 Fall 2001

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Vol. 12, No. 1
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EDITORIAL:
MAKING A DIFFERENCE

School social workers make a positive difference in the lives of children, parents, teachers, and communities. Beginning with the pioneer home-and-school visitors to our 21st Century practitioners, each generation has striven to improve the quality of services offered and to enhance the profession. Most practitioners go unnoticed by the larger profession, but parents, children, teachers, administrators, and community leaders are appreciative and thankful for their ability to ameliorate and prevent problems. Some are formally recognized by their peers when they receive, for example, a lifetime achievement award and state school social worker of the year award. The contributions made by so many for almost 100 years must not go unnoticed. Rather, we should continue to celebrate the heroic work of so many of our colleagues.

Since 11 September 2001, a day that changed our sense of security and invulnerability, we forcibly have been reminded of how precious and uncertain life is–for all on this Earth. Violence and destruction occur all too frequently in the United States and around the globe. Terrorism in its myriad forms is a horror to all on planet Earth. Few, in the United States, will forget the horror of September 11 and the numbing uncertainty of our futures. Peace has been elusive; yet, it must be primary for the over 6 billion people who share Earth.

School social workers can and do each day seek to find strengths in each human, to empower each to a greater good, and to prevent and treat all forms of violence directed at one's self and to others. The need is ever present for social workers to insure the sacredness of human life. We school social workers, of course, are not alone in devoting our professional lives to enhancing human well-being. The 21st Century must become a century of peace and justice.

Social workers have formed professional associations to not only collectively enhance the profession but also to empower those we serve and to promote just and caring societies. In 1919, the National Association of Visiting Teachers and Home and School Visitors was formed (McCullagh, 1994). This first national association ultimately was named the National Association of School Social Workers, and, in 1955, with other social work associations, merged to form the National Association of Social Workers (NASW). While NASW's commitment to school social workers has, at times, ebbed, there have been leaders such as Richard Anderson, Toy Watson, and Molly Freeman, who have

labored on behalf of school social work to maintain its visibility and viability within the national association.

One significant accomplishment was the gathering of almost 900 social workers who attended the First National Conference on School Social Work in Denver in April 1978. Toy Watson, Chair of this historic First National Conference, congratulated Molly Freeman, the NASW School Social Work Coordinator, for her extensive work, boundless energy, and "tireless efforts and amazing resources" in making the Conference a reality (Watson,1978, p. 13). Toy and Molly are two leaders who shared their professional lives with us. We are grateful.

Exposure to leaders in school social work came when I had arranged for and had the opportunity to introduce the keynote speaker at the Thirteenth Annual Midwest School Social Work Conference held in Louisville in the fall 1980. Among the many excellent workshops that I attended was one entitled "Practicing School Social Work and Publishing," led by Randy Fisher and Vaughn Morrison. Randy's and Vaughn's workshop was powerful! Their workshop furthered the crystallization of my academic self, and it became the catalyst that has shaped much of my subsequent scholarly endeavors. I returned from that Midwest Conference energized and renewed.

The Second National Conference of School Social Workers was held in Washington, DC in May 1981. Another important leader, I. Lorraine Davis, was then the Chair, NASW Council on Social Work Services in Schools. She, in our recent issue, shared her life's "evolutionary process" (Davis, 2001). I was privileged to attend and present two papers, submitted soon after returning from the Midwest Conference, at this historic Second Conference, and this cemented my now 30-year commitment to school social work (McCullagh, 1981, 1982). Randy and Vaughn, now 20 years later, continue to be leaders in school social work.

The historic field of school social work maintained its identity with the formation of the National Association of Social Workers. School social work became one of five "Section Executive Committees" (Beck, 1977, p. 1089). Opal Boston, the 16th and last president of the National Association of School Social Workers, was elected Chair of the National School Social Work Section Executive Committee and served for 2 years, thus serving for 6 years in the highest national leadership position for school social workers.

A chronology–"NASW and School Social Work: Selected Events, Developments, and Publications, 1947 - 2001"–follows this editorial. The chronology is, of necessity, incomplete and most likely contains errors; neither can the chronology provide the richness nor the complexity that makes an event a reality, such as the First National

Conference of School Social Workers held in April 1978. The chronology, of course, cannot detail the commitment of so many practitioners and others who work quietly and also come together to make NASW national conferences successful; develop position statements; establish standards; lobby legislators; review manuscripts; author articles, books, chapters in books; edit newsletters, books, journals; chair or serve on committees, task forces, commissions, sections; present workshops and papers at state, regional, and national conferences; and the list of activities is endless. We celebrate the commitment of so many who further school social work.

NASW and school social work have had a very significant relationship for almost half a century, but, at times, the commitment by the national NASW leadership to school social work has ebbed. Without the commitment of many–too many to mention–and, at times, a forceful reminder to the NASW leadership, school social work could have been left behind. In this issue Dr. Richard J. Anderson, Toy Watson, and Molly Freeman, each serving in different capacities on behalf of our National Association of Social Workers, share their unique contributions to the promotion of school social work.

Dr. Anderson, for instance, was an NASW Charter member, the second president of the Illinois Association of School Social Workers, and the first Editor-in-Chief of *Social Work in Education.* Toy Watson, among his many leadership positions, was the President of the International Association of Pupil Personnel Workers in 1974; Chair, NASW Task Force on Social Work in Schools in the 1970s; and Chair of the NASW Commission in Schools in the 1980s.

Recent issues of the *Journal of School Social Work* also have included reflections by other leaders who have helped to make school social work an NASW priority. To illustrate just one aspect of their complex and multifaceted leadership roles: Bob Constable was the Editor-in-Chief of *Social Work in Education* for 4 years in the 1980s; Marion Huxtable was a long-time Consulting Editor of *Social Work in Education*; Jim Clark was the first Coordinator of the NASW School Social Work Section Steering Committee in the mid-1990s; and Renee Shai Levine was a Consulting Editor, member of the Editorial Board, and a Coeditor of a special issue of *Social Work in Education.*

There is strength and effectiveness with our multiple school social work associations–national, regional, and state–all committed to enhancing the values and beliefs of school social workers on behalf of all those we serve. Ronda Parks Armstrong, for instance, featured in an earlier issue, has been and is a leader at the state level. She was chosen in 1980 as the Iowa School Social Worker of the Year. In 1981, Ronda was named one of the Outstanding Young Women of America. And, in this issue, Dr. Andrea Bevernitz, shares her engaging conversation with

Ron Kuehl, "Mr. School Social Worker" and "School Social Worker for the City" of Oshkosh, Wisconsin.

Leaders in school social work have emerged every decade since our inception in the early 20th Century. We must not forget that they made a difference. This editorial and the chronology that follows focus on NASW and its relationship to one of its historic creators–school social workers as exemplified by its National Association of School Social Workers. The chronology is but a brief outline. Narratives by leaders such as Toy Watson, Molly Freeman, and Richard J. Anderson add meaning and understanding to the development of school social work. Our history continues to unfold; much is still unwritten. And, it is important that many more leaders share their unique contributions and perspectives.

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NASW AND SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK: SELECTED EVENTS, DEVELOPMENTS, AND PUBLICATIONS, 1947 - 2001

James G. McCullagh

Late 1940s

1947: The National Association of School Social Workers (NASSW or Association) established an executive office and appointed Mildred Sikkema as its executive secretary. She served until 1951, when the office was closed.

1947: September 19: First issue of the Membership Newsletter published by the Association. In the 1930s annual newsletters were also published from at least 1932 through 1936.

1949: Committee on Inter-Association Structure formed. NASSW was represented by Miss Ruth Smalley, Mrs. Louis S. Weiss, and Miss Mildred Sikkema.

1949: Emilie Rannells served as the 15th president of the Association from 1949 to 1951.

1950s

1950: June: Temporary Inter-Association Council of Social Work Membership Organizations (TIAC) established, replacing the Committee on Inter-Association Structure.

1951: Opal Boston elected as the 16th and last President of the Association. (For a list of all presidents and vice-presidents of the Association, see McCullagh, 1998.)

1953: *Report of a study of school social work practice in twelve communities* (Sikkema, 1953). Conducted under the joint auspices of the NASSW and the American Association of Social Workers.

1953: May 31: Northern California Chapter first group to be approved as a chapter of the Association. The Indiana Chapter was the second and was approved at the same meeting by the National Board.

1954: Two new chapters - Connecticut Chapter and Minnesota Chapter – added, bringing the total to 10 chapters.

1955: January 3: Marjorie Case, professional consultant to NASSW until October 1.

1955: February 18-19: Ballots were counted on the question of the formation of NASW by Association members; 501 favored and 3 opposed formation of NASW. The return rate was 62%.

1955: May 31: The last Annual Business Meeting of NASSW was held in San Francisco at the Annual Forum of the National Conference of Social Work. NASSW also had its own professional meetings on May 31 and June 2.

1955: July: The National Association of Social Workers (NASW) formed. On October 1, NASW became operational (Alexander, 1983).

1955: July 7: Bylaws adopted by NASW included five "Section Executive Committees," including a School Social Work Section (Beck, 1977, p. 1085).

1955: September: The last issue (Volume 31, number 1) of the *Bulletin of the National Association of School Social Workers* was published. The first issue of the *Bulletin* was published in December 1924 (See McCullagh, 1986, 1987, 1988).

1955: September: The last NASSW membership letter, the fortieth, was published. The first issue of this series was printed on September 19, 1947.

1955: September 30: Opal Boston ended her term as president of NASSW.

1955: October: Marjorie Case, section director until March 1956 and professional consultant until 1957.

1955: Opal Boston, Chair, NASW School Social Work Section.

1956: January: The first issue of the *NASW News - School Social Work Section* was published.

1956: January: The first issue of *Social Work* published. The first three issues included one article that represented the School Social Work Section (Smalley, 1956, Altmeyer, 1956, Arbit, 1956).

1956: March: Virginia Quattlebaum, Section director, replacing Marjorie Case.

1956: May 20-25: At the Annual Forum of the National Conference of Social Work held in St. Louis, the NASW School Social Work Section held its meetings on May 22 and 24.

1956: July 1-6: Workshop on school social work practice held at Lake Forest, Illinois. Planning originally started by the NASSW. Sponsored by the NASW School Social Work Section, Committee on Practice (Quattlebaum, 1958).

1956: *Selected Readings for School Social Workers 1954* (NASW, 1956) (with minor revisions, 1956) published.

1957: The 13th edition of the *Social Work Year Book 1957* published. Included an article on School Social Services (Poole, 1957).

1957: The *Social Work* Editorial Board included a representative for five sections, including the School Social Work Section, beginning with Volume 1, number 2. Representatives of the School Social Work Section were Elsie Nesbit (Vol. 1#2-Vol. 2#3), Jane Wille (Vol. 2#4-Vol. 3#3), Grace W. Mitchell (Vol. 3#4-Vol. 5#3), Florence Poole (Vol. 5#4-9#3). Beginning with Volume 8, number 4, October 1963, editorial board members were no longer designated as representing any Section.

1957: Elsie Nesbit, Section Editor for *Social Work* (see above) is Chair, Section Publications Committee, which is responsible for selecting papers for publication in *Social Work*.

1957: August: Elsie Nesbit, Section Chair, replacing Opal Boston.

1957: Opal Boston, who had served as president of NASSW from 1951 to 1955 and then as Chair of the NASW School Social Work Section for 2 years, was presented with "a silver bowl with the inscription To Opal Boston–Love and Appreciation–NASSW and SSW Section, NASW" upon completing her term of office at the annual membership meeting in Philadelphia ("Section Activities," 1957, p. 17).

1957: Volume 2 of *Social Work* included four articles representing the School Social Work Section (Nesbit, 1957; Mitchell, 1957; Altmeyer, 1957, Abbe, 1957).

1958: Volume 3 of *Social Work* included one article for each of the four issues to represent the School Social Work Section. Papers selected by the School Social Work Section continued through Volume 8, number 4.

1958: *School Social Work Practice* (Quattlebaum, 1958) published.

1958: Workshop on school social work administration held at Lake Forest, Illinois, July 13-17, 1958. The NASW School Social Work Section appointed the Committee on Interprofessional Relationships, chaired by John C. Nebo, which planned the workshop in collaboration with the American Association of School Administrators (Nebo, 1960).

1958: Elsie Nesbit, Chair, Executive Committee, NASW School Social Work Section, 1958-1959; Past Chair, 1959-1960.

1958: John C. Nebo, Chair-elect, School Social Work Section.

1959: *Helping the Troubled School Child: Selected Readings in School Social Work, 1935-1955* (Lee, 1959) published.

1959: July 1: Jerry L. Kelley, assistant director, School Social Work and Section Director; replaced Miss Virginia Quattlebaum. He resigned December 1961.

1959: August: John Nebo, Chair, Executive Committee, NASW School Social Work Section, 1959-1960.

1959: August 2-8: Conference on the Contribution of School Social Work to Social Work Education, Highland Park, Illinois. Sponsored by the NASW School Social Work Section (See Johnson, 1962).

1960s

1960: *Social Work in the Schools: Selected Papers* (NASW, 1960) published.

1960: *Administration of School Social Work* (Nebo, 1960) published.

1960: The 14th edition of the *Social Work Year Book 1960* published. Included an article on School Social Services (Boston,1960).

1961: Dr. Joseph P. Hcurihan, NASW School Social Work Section Chair. Served for 2 years until 1963.

1961: December: Jerry Kelley, Assistant Director, School Social Work Section, resigned.

1962: *School Social Work: Its Contribution to Professional Education* (Johnson, 1962).

1962: *Description of Social Work Program in Schools*. The pamphlet was prepared by a subcommittee of the Practice Committee of the NASW School Social Work Section.

1963: May 19: The NASW School Social Work Section sponsored a program on working with groups in the school setting at the pre-Forum institute, National Conference on Social Welfare, Cleveland (See Merl, 1965).

1963: June 1: Sections were eliminated. Nine councils were established, including Social Work in Schools. The councils and five commissions "were made subordinate to a 'Division of Practice and Knowledge'" (Beck, 1977, p. 1089).

1963: Jane Wille, Provisional Chair, Council on Social Work in Schools.

1964: April: Conference "to study problems in communication between the fields of education and social work. The idea for such a conference was originally developed by the Education Committee of the School Social Work Section." Co-sponsored by the NASW Council on Social Work in Schools in collaboration with the Council on Social Work Education (See Beck, 1965, p. 3).

1965: *Work with Groups in the School Setting* (Merl, 1965) published.

1965: *Society and the Schools: Communication Challenges to Education and Social Work* (Beck, 1965) published.

1965: The one-volume *Encyclopedia of Social Work*, published in 1965, replaced the *Social Work Year Book*, which was also originally published in 1930 and last published in 1960. Each issue included an article on school social work.

1969: June: National Workshop in School Social Work held at the University of Pennsylvania sponsored by NASW and the National Institute of Mental Health. The theme of the workshop was "Social Change and School Social Work in the 1970s" (See Sarri & Maple, 1972).

1970s

1971: The 16th edition, now 2 volumes, of the *Encyclopedia of Social Work*, published. The *Encyclopedia* included an article on School Social Work (Costin, 1971).

1972: *The School in the Community* (Sarri & Maple, 1972) published.

1973: The NASW Council on Social Work in the Schools held its first meeting in the fall 1973. Toy F. Watson, Chair, Steering Committee, Council on Social Work in the Schools.

1976: NASW Task Force on Social Work in Schools established, replacing the Council on Social Work in the Schools and all councils (Beck, 1977).

1976 *Summary of the Preliminary Report of the Survey of Social Workers in the Schools* published. The NASW Task Force on Social Work in the Schools, which included Marian Chuan, Lela Costin, and Toy Watson, prepared the survey.

1976: August 31: *National Association of Social Workers Report on Survey of Social Work Services in Schools* by Lewis W. Carr.

1977: March: The first issue of the *School Social Work Information Bulletin* distributed by NASW; editor, Molly Freeman, School Social Work Coordinator. It "was mailed to approximately 200 people" ("Publications", 1978, p. 14).

1977: *School social work and PL 94-142: The Education for All Handicapped Children Act* (Anderson, Freeman, & Edwards, 1977) published. Proceedings of a workshop held July 13-16, 1977 at Athens, Georgia, and sponsored by the University of Georgia School of Social Work and NASW (See Anderson, Freeman, & Edwards, 1977).

1977: August 23: Final regulations for P.L. 94-142 released by the Office of Education; "social work services in schools" included in the definition of Related services. NASW and many others helped to achieve coverage for school social work services.

1977: The 17th edition of the *Encyclopedia of Social Work* published, and included an article on School Social Work (Costin, 1977).

1977: NASW Task Force on Social Work in Schools was chaired by Toy Watson; members included Lela Costin, Leonora Hamlin, Josephine Newton, and Marian Chuan.

1977: September: NASW Committee on Social Work Services in Schools established. Appointed to the Committee: Anne Mitchell, Chair, Claire Gallant, Steve P. Manos, Josephine K. Newton, Norbert Simon, and Marilyn V. Mabry.

1977: Planning Task Force for the First National Conference of School Social Workers appointed. Toy Watson, Chair, and members Richard J. Anderson, Joyce DeChristopher, Anne Mitchell, Marilyn Mabry.

1977: *NASW Standards for Social Work Services in Schools* approved January 20, 1978, by the NASW Board of Directors, published. The *Standards* were prepared by NASW's Task Force on Social Work Services in Schools and its successor Committee on Social Work Services in Schools.

1978: April: *Federal Legislation and the School Social Worker* (Everttts, 1978) published.

1978: April 13-15: First National Conference of School Social Workers held in Denver, Colorado. Chair, Toy F. Watson.

1978: *Social Work Services in Schools: Historical Perspectives and Current Directions* (Costin, 1978) published.

1978: NASW published its inaugural issue of *Social Work in Education* in October. The first editor-in-chief was Richard J. Anderson. The first issue was dedicated to the almost 1000 school social workers who attended the First National Conference of School Social Workers. Articles selected for this first issue were chosen from manuscripts that were presented at this First Conference (Anderson, 1978).

1978: John Alderson, I. Lorriane Davis, and Helane Leta appointed to serve on the NASW Committee on Social Work Services in Schools. Anne Mitchell continued as Chair with Claire Gallant, Steve Manos, and Norbert Simon.

1978: December: The *School Social Work Information Bulletin* "now goes to over 5,000" ("Publications," 1978, p. 14).

1979: February 21-23: The NASW Board of Directors approved the request of the NASW Committee on Social Work Services in Schools to change its name to the NASW Provisional Council on Social Work Services in the Schools with Anne Mitchell serving as its Chair. Members included John Alderson, I. Lorraine Davis, Claire Gallant, Helane Leta, Steve Manos, and Norbert Simon.

1979: The National Alliance of Pupil Service Organizations (1979) is represented by Toy Watson, Molly Freeman, and Paula Mintzies of NASW.

1979: *School Social Work in the Literature: A Bibliography* (Fisher, 1979) published. A Supplement and Update was published in 1981 by Randy Fisher.

1979: Fall: Anne Mitchell, reappointed Chair for 1 additional year. Appointments also included Florence Augustin, Robert Gallagher, Steve Montoya, Helen Tyler, and Milton Weiner. John J. Alderson, Helene Leta, and I. Lorraine Davis continued as members ("NASW Provisional," 1979).

1980s

1980: *School Social Work and the Law: Papers from the National Invitational Workshop on School Social Work and the Law, May 29-31, 1980, Ann Arbor, Michigan* (NASW, 1980), published.

1980: I. Lorraine Davis appointed by NASW President Nancy Humpreys as the Chair of the Provisional Council on Social Work Services in Schools. She succeeded Anne Mitchell, who finished her term on June 30.

1980: October: The NASW National Board of Directors granted "practice advancement council" status to the Council on Social Work Services in Schools. I. Lorraine Davis continued as Chair, NASW Practice Advancement Council on Social Work Services in Schools. Members include Florence Augustin, Andrew V. Coughlin, Jr., Edith M. Freeman, Robert Gallagher, Steve Leo Montoya, Dorothy Sachritz, Helen Tyler, and Milton Weiner.

1980: NASW and NEA approved a joint policy statement "affirming the two groups' commitment of and responsibility for promoting maximum achievement by all students in the nation's education system" (NASW/NEA Joint Policy Statement, 1980, p. 1).

1981: January: Lela B. Costin became the second editor-in-chief of *Social Work in Education* with Volume 3, number 2.

1981: NASW's Second National Conference on School Social Work held on May 7-9 in Washington, D.C. Anne Mitchell, Chair, Conference Planning Task Force.

1982: *Professional Issues for Social Workers in Schools: Papers from the 2nd NASW National Conference on School Social Work, May 7-9, 1981, Washington, D.C.* (NASW, 1982), published.

1982: June 18: *NASW Standards for School Social Work Services*, prepared by the Education Task Force, approved by the NASW Board of Directors.

1982: *Mediation in Special Education Disputes* (Gallant, 1982) published.

1982: August: Paula Meares appointed Chair of the Practice Advancement Council. New members are Loretta Lopez and Beverly Martin. Andrew V. Coughlin, Jr. and Esther Glasser continue for 1 year.

1983: New members on the NASW Practice Advancement Council on Social Work Services in Schools: Wallace Lornell, Joyce Cunningham, and Henrietta Hemmesch. Esther Glasser and Andrew Coughlin completed their terms on the Council.

1983: November 19-22: The Practice Advancement Council and the Editorial Committee of *Social Work in Education* sponsored four sessions at the NASW Professional Symposium (1983).

1983: December: *The Contribution of School Social Work to General Education and Special Education*, a fact sheet prepared by the NASW Practice Advancement Council on Social Work Services in Schools.

1983: March 23: Joyce Cunningham, member of the Council, presented written testimony before the House Subcommittee on Select Education and attended the oversight hearing on Interagency Cooperation in Special Education ("NASW Presents," 1984).

1984: Members of the NASW Practice Advancement Council for Social Work Services in Schools: Paula Meares, Chair, and Loretta Lopez, Henrietta Hemmesch, Joyce Cunningham, and Wallace Lornell.

1984: Summer: NASW Board of Directors considered terminating *Social Work in Education* due to its low subscription rate.

1985: January 31-February 3: NASW Third National School Social Work Conference, "Educational Excellence in Transitional Times," New Orleans, LA. Dr. Mable T. Hawkins, Chair, and I. Lorraine Davis, Randy A. Fisher, Esther Glasser, Betty Welsh, Conference Planning Committee.

1985: April: The May *NASW News*, according to Fisher (1985), reported that at an April meeting the NASW Board of Directors approved "in principle and subject to further study the sponsoring of an inclusive annual professional symposium that would preclude the need for the specialty conferences now sponsored by the association" (p. 2). Thus, NASW would not sponsor speciality conferences such as the recent national school social work conference. Fisher (1987) noted that the change was approved by the NASW Board of Directors to be effective in 1987.

1985: *The human factor: A key to excellence in education* (Mintzzies & Hare, 1985) published. Sponsored by the 1985 NASW School Social Work Conference Planning Committee.

1985: Paula Allen-Meares, completed a 3-year term as Chair of the Practice Advancement Council on Social Work Services in Schools in June. Members of the Council in 1985 were Henrietta Hemmesch, Linda Zeisloft, Joyce Cunningham, and Wallace Lornell.

1985: April: NASW Commission on Education, which replaced the Practice Advancement Council on Social Work Services in Schools, was established by action of the NASW Board of Directors.

1985: November: The NASW Commission on Education held its first meeting just prior to the NASW Professional Symposium in Chicago, which began on November 6. Joyce Cunningham is the Chair; members include Emile Barrileaux, Anne Mitchell, Frances Caple, Alvin Fleider, Eleida Gomez, and Esther Glasser ("NASW Commission on Education to," 1985; "NASW Commision," 1985).

1985: Fall: Robert T. Constable became the third editor-in-chief of *Social Work in Education* with Volume 8, number 1.

1986: *Achieving Educational Excellence for Children at Risk* (Hawkins, 1986) published. Papers selected by the Conference Planning Committee and others that were presented at the Third National School Social Work Conference.

1986: *Spare the Rod?! A Resource Guide: Alternative to Corporal Punishment* published (Bowers, 1986). This project was sponsored by the NASW Education Commission upon the recommendation of Isadora Hare, and the *Guide* was prepared in consultation with Ms. Hare.

1986: The National Alliance of Pupil Services Organizations elected Isadora Hare as coordinator of the Coalition for 1986-1987.

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1986: June 2: *Summary of NASW Education Commission First Annual Report: FY 1985-86* completed by Chair Joyce Cunningham and Isadora Hare.

1986: June 18: Letter from Commission on Education Chair, Joyce Cunningham, to Secretary of Education William J. Bennett, urging him "to include reference to school social work services in [his] report on elementary education." *The Contribution of School Social Workers to elementary Education* dated May 1986, was attached.

1986: Isadora Hare promoted to Staff Director for the Commission on Education.

1987: March 14-16: NASW Commission on Education met and was chaired by Joyce Cunningham. Other commissioners included Emilie Barrilleaux, Frances Caple, Alvin Flieder, Eleida Gomez, and Katie M. Hart.

1987: June: NASW's Commission on Education and the Mid-West Conference "signed a letter of understanding outlining cooperative activities to enhance communication and mutual support between the two organizations" ("Mid-West School," p. 7).

1987: June 30: Joyce Cunningham, first chair of the Commission on Education, and Emilie Barrileaux and Alvin Flieder, completed their term of office ("News From," 1987-1988).

1987: *School Social Workers . . . serving children at risk*, a four-page brochure, developed by the NASW Commission on Education.

1987: The 18th edition of the *Encyclopedia of Social Work* published, and included an article on School Social Work (Costin, 1987).

1987: NASW Commission on Education with others developed a position statement on AIDS and the Schools. NASW President Dworak-Peck presented the statement to U.S. Surgeon General Koop in September ("Concern About," 1987-88).

1987: NASW's Commission on Education included new appointments Toy Watson, Chair, in July, and Jim Clark and Tonne Bassman in the fall. Frances Caple, Eleida Gomez, and Katie Hart continue as members ("NASW Names," 1987; News from," 1987-88).

1988: November 9-12: NASW School Social Work Speciality Conference '88 was held in conjunction with the NASW Social Work '88 Conference in Philadelphia. The School Social Work Conference Planning Committee consisted of Toy Watson, Chair, Freda Easton, Elaine Fliesser, Fran Caple, and Ann Mitchell.

1988: December: 1988-1989 NASW Commission on Education, which met for the first time, was chaired by Toy Watson. New commissioners were Simon Dominguez and Virginia Laurence. Other commissioners were Jim Clark, Ronne Bassman, and Katie Hart.

1989: Summer: NASW Commission on Education includes Toy Watson, Chair, and Ronne Bassman, Jim Clark, Simon Dominguez, Katie Hart, and Virginia Laurence. Toy Watson and Katie Hart finished their term.

1989: Summer: Final report of Toy Watson, Chair (1989).

1989: July: Joan Y. Harris and Carol Smith appointed to the NASW Commission on Education.

1989: The National Center for Social Policy and Practice, established in 1986 by NASW as "a free-standing, affiliated not-for-profit organization" (Battle, 1990), published *Effectiveness in School Social Work Programs and Practice: A Selected Bibliography.*

1989: November: NASW Commission on Education, held its meeting. Simon Dominguez, Chair; members include Ronne Bassman, Jim Clark, Virginia Laurence, and Joan Y. Harris and Virginia Laurence, recent appointments.

1989: *Expanding School Social Work through Federal Funding in P. L. 100-297* developed by the NASW Commission on Education.

1990s

1990: January: Paula Allen-Meares became the fourth editor-in-chief of *Social Work in Education* with Volume 12, number 2.

1990: NASW in collaboration with Paula Allen-Meares "completed a major survey of school social work in the U.S.A." ("Major National," 1991, p. 9).

1990: The mission of *Social Work in Education* was expanded to "include manuscripts on infants at risk of developmental and educational failure, the preschool population, and postsecondary an adult education" (Allen-Meares, 1990, p. 3).

1990: May: The National Association of School Psychologists, the American School Counselor Association, the American Association for Counseling and Development, and NASW issued *Pupil Services: Essential to Education - A Position Statement* ("NASW Chapters," 1991).

1990: November: School Social Work, one of four focused tracks, at NASW's Social Work '90 in Boston. The NASW Commission on Education were the conference planners. The Chair, Simon Dominguez, was a member of the Central Conference Planning committee ("National Conference," 1989-1990).

1990: November: On the Need for States to Employ School Social Work Consultants: A Position Statement, a joint statement issued by NASW Commission on Education, the Midwest School Social Work Council, and the National Council of State Consultants for School Social Work and authored by James P. Clark (1991).

1990: November: On the Need for All States to Provide School Social Work as a Related Service in Special Education: A Position Statement, a joint statement issued by NASW Commission on Education, the Midwest School Social Work Council, and the National Council of State Consultants for School Social Work authored by James P. Clark (1991).

1991: NASW Commission on Education members: Simon Dominguez, Chair; members Virginia L. Laurence, Patricia A. Metz, Joan Y. Harris, Carol A. Smith, Yvonne Nelson.

1991: The *School Social Work Information Bulletin* was not published during FY 1990-1991. The only issue for 1991 was published in the fall.

1991: NASW Commission on Education Position Statement: The School Social Worker and Confidentiality (NASW, 1991).

1992: The School Social Work Specialist Credential offered by NASW.

1992: July: World Assembly '92: Improving the Human Condition (1991), sponsored by NASW and the International Federation of Social Workers in Washington, D.C., included sessions on school social work.

1992: June 18: *NASW Standards for School Social Work Services* prepared by the Education Commission Task Force (Steven Bloom, Joyce Cunningham, Simon Dominguez, Edith Freeman, Vaughn Morrison, Barbara Morse, and Josephine Newton) and approved by the NASW Board of Directors.

1992: July: NASW Commission on Education disbanded.

1993: NASW Standards for the Practice of Social Work with Adolescents. Approved by the NASW Board of Directors in April 1993.

1993: January 22: National Coalition for School Social Work formed, including Isadora Hare as the NASW representative.

1993: On behalf of the National Coalition for School Social Work, Randy A. Fisher wrote to the president of NASW to inquire about NASW's intent to form sections (Fisher, 1983). NASW President Abbott (1993) responded to Mr. Fisher's letter.

1993: November 5: NASW sponsored a School Social Work Luncheon at the Social Work '93 national conference.

1994: January: Edith M. Freeman became the fifth editor-in-chief of *Social Work in Education* with Volume 16, number 1.

1994: Spring: Last issue of the *School Social Work Information Bulletin* published.

1994: October 19-22: NASW Meeting of the Profession: Social Work '94.

1994: November: NASW School Social Work Section. Organizational meeting in November 1994, by a steering committee appointed effective July 1994, consisting of James P. Clark, coordinator (to June 1997), Lyndall E. Boal (to June 1996), Katie M. Hart (to June 1997), Elaine Moore Kirk (to June 1996), and Petra Marie Galindo (to June 1997).

1995: January: School Social Work Section granted official status by the NASW Board of Directors. First practice section established by NASW.

1995: Dues were $15.00 for the founding year (April 1, 1995-March 31, 1996) for the NASW School Social Work Section.

1995: May: Volume 1, number 1 of *The Section Connection: Newsletter of the NASW School Social Work Section* published.

1995: July: *School Social Workers: Enhancing Success for All Students*, a glossy brochure produced by NASW and NASW School Social Work Section.

1995: October 12-15: Social Work '95: NASW's Meeting of the Profession, Philadelphia. Numerous seminars, workshops, poster and table sessions devoted to school social work.

1995: October 13: Inaugural Meeting of the School Social Work Section held by members of the Steering Committee led by Jim Clark, Coordinator, with members Katie Hart, Petra Galindo, Lyndall Boal, and Elaine Kirk.

1995: October 14: School Social Work Luncheon at NASW's Meeting of the Profession.

1995: Brochure "School Social Workers: Enhancing School Success for All Students" developed.

1995: *School Social Work Certification Requirements: A State Comparison Study* (Hare & Josem, 1995).

1995: The 19th edition, and now 3 volumes, of the *Encyclopedia of Social Work* published. Articles on School Social Work Overview (Freeman, 1995) and School-Linked Services (Hare, 1995) included in the 19th edition.

1996: September 26-29: National School Social Work Conference held in Louisville. Hosted by the Midwest School Social Work Council and the Kentucky Association for School Social Work in collaboration with SSWAA and NASW School Social Work Section.

1996: Brenda Ward and Kenneth M. Hanson appointed to the School Social Work Section Steering Committee.

1997: February 23: Collaboration Agreement between the School Social Work Association of America and the NASW School Social Work Section signed by Randy A. Fisher for SSWAA and Jim P. Clark for the Section. Both organizations agreed, in part, "to recognize and value our common mission and purpose and work collaboratively to enhance the school social work specialty" ("SSSWAA & NASW," 1997, pp. 1-2).

1997: Katie Hart, Section Coordinator who replaced Jim Clark; Joann Klein, Loretta Lopez, Ken Hanson, and Brenda Ward are Section Steering Committee Members.

1997: October 4-6: NASW Conference: "Take Charge of Change" in Baltimore.

1998: January: Cynthia G. Franklin became the sixth editor in chief of *Social Work in Education* with Volume 20, number 3.

1998: *Multisystem Skills and Interventions in School Social Work Practice* (Freeman, E. M., Franklin, C. G., Fong, R., Shaffer, G. L., & Timberlake, E. M., 1998) published. An edited collection of articles that were previously published in *Social Work*, *Social Work in Education*, *Social Work Research*, and *Health & Social Work*.

1999: Sarah Lowman, Section Coordinator who replaced Katie Hart; Robert Goodwin, Katie Hart, Joann Klein, Loretta Lopez, and Alphonse Shropshire, Section Steering Committee Members.

2000s

2000: January: School Social Work Specialist Certification began by NASW (See "Frequently," 2000).

2000: July: Last issue of *Social Work in Education* published with Volume 22, number 3.

2000: October: *Children & Schools: A Journal of Social Work Practice*, which replaced *Social Work in Education*, is published with Volume 22, number 4.

2001: Spring: A Work Group, consisting of 11 NASW members, was appointed by the School Social Work Section Steering Committee, to review and revise the *NASW Standards for School Social Work Services*. Loretta Lopez, Chair (See Lopez, 2001).

2001: Fall: Alphonse Shropshire, Chair, NASW School Social Work Section. Members: Robert Goodwin, Loretta Lopez, Adelaida Montemayor, Jane M. Quinn.

2001: October: *Confidentiality and School Social Work: A Practice Perspective* published by NASW.

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FORTY YEARS IN AND AROUND SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK.

Richard J. Anderson

ABSTRACT

One looks back at the past decades of a career with both joy and some sadness. There is pride in a few accomplishments, and a little sadness at the missed opportunities. Here are some snapshots, not always well connected, of my experiences in school social work, and some in social work education. It was great to have as colleagues so many wonderful people in school social work, filled with both ideals and energy. I have included the names of a few of these people with whom I have worked, so that others may continue to build on their achievements.

There is a basic notion about School Social Work that attracted me to it a long time ago. This is a snapshot of my story about a service that helps reduce many of the things that interfere with children learning in school. It is a foundation service for education, because people, especially children, do not learn well when they have environmental, social, or psychological impairments to learning. It is necessary to reduce, mitigate, or resolve these impediments to learning before a child's education can become successful. School social work has played a central role in this arena for almost 100 years.

College and Air Force Years

After two years at Cornell College, Mt. Vernon, Iowa, in 1948, I transferred to the University of Denver to complete my undergraduate work in psychology. I needed to work my way through college, and I supported myself by being employed evenings and all night at the (then named) Colorado Psychopathic Hospital. I was an orderly at nights and a student during days. When I graduated from the University of Denver in December 1950, like many young men, I only had two career options. Because of the Korean War, I could be drafted or enlist in

military service. I chose enlistment and served in the U.S. Air Force School of Aviation Medicine for 2 years, followed by Officer Candidate School and then teaching at the Air Force Officer Candidate School. While assigned to the School of Aviation Medicine, I became aware that many of the personnel who failed the training did so not because of a lack of intellect, but because of an array of other factors. These factors were usually personal or family issues.

In 1953, while teaching at the U.S.A.F. Officer Candidate School, President Eisenhower brought the Korean War to a close, and I had the opportunity to be discharged. In August 1953, with a wife and child, I moved back to my home state of Illinois and enrolled in the University of Illinois School of Social Work at Urbana. At the University of Illinois, I first learned of School Social Work.

My faculty advisor was Florence Pool. John Nebo and Jane Willie were the State of Illinois Consultants for what was then called the Visiting Social Counselor Program, a relatively new service in Illinois. Florence Pool advised me in my second year placement with the Champaign, Illinois, Public Schools. This began my 40-year involvement in and around school social work. I say "in and around," because, while I wasn't always employed in school social work, I remained close to it and interested in this area of practice.

My Earlier Years in School Social Work

School social work began in the early 20th Century, because of a growing concern for children. As industrial and agricultural child labor became frowned upon, and then regulated, an increasing proportion of children began to attend school and stayed a greater number of years. They also brought their problems to school. One origin for the development of school social work was a concern for "maladjusted" children, another was for "handicapped" children, and the third was to enforce compulsory attendance laws, because school was deemed good for children. The Illinois program for School Social Work, at first called the Visiting Social Counselor, was based on helping socially maladjusted children. As special education developed, it was relatively easy to conceptually expand practice to include these youngsters. My adopted State, Georgia, at about the same time, began its' school social work program because of a concern for quality attendance. Georgia's program was called the "Visiting Teacher."

In 1955, the year that I graduated with my M.S.W. degree from Illinois, seven professional social work organizations, including the original National Association of School Social Workers, came together to create the National Association of Social Workers. I was lucky enough to become a Charter member of NASW as it developed a cohesive voice for all of social work. My first job after graduation was with the Elgin, Illinois Public Schools. This was a well developed program and a good place for a beginning school social worker. I learned a lot.

In my first year at Elgin, I was assigned to serve several elementary schools and a junior high school. In Elgin, each day of the week, I was in a different school. Upon my first visit in one elementary school, the principal graciously took me around to meet the staff. I had just turned 25 years of age, and with my new degree, felt well equipped for every problem of every child. However, I remember this principal as a formidable lady, who communicated to me in a kindly way that she was in charge. She proudly showed me the room that I was assigned to use for serving the children referred to me. She carefully and thoughtfully had outfitted the room with a reclining couch, so that the children could lie down, while I conducted my treatments. The reader of today must remember the classic psychoanalytic setting with the therapist sitting by the couch while the patient is in repose. She had duplicated this setting just for me! Needless to say, the children I served were never on the couch.

A few years later, in another school system, I had a fine little 6 year old referred early in the fall because of his "school phobia." The teaching staff was alert to issues of children and aware of the desirability of intervening early when the child was reluctant to come to school. With prompt dispatch, I met with the parents and child, and, with a good relationship, I arranged for them to call me any morning when the child would not come to school. This was a fine family that was eager to cooperate. A couple of days later, after an all night rain, the parents called early in the morning to tell me the child wouldn't go to school that day. I drove over, and I talked with the child, who was peeking out from the closet. In just a few minutes, he was willing to come out and get in my car with me. We drove off together the short distance to school, and I parked at the curb in front of the building. My plan was to walk him into the building and stay with him in class for a short time until he was settled. His plan was a little different. As soon as the car stopped, he took off running across the rain soaked and muddy schoolyard. Naturally, I did too. He was a fast runner with a good head start. Both of us were racing across the yard, when I slipped and went flat on my chest and face in the mud. Well, he knew a good

thing when he saw it, so he stopped to watch. I guess he felt he had made his point, because then he cheerfully went with me into the classroom. I never had another call to bring him to school. He attended faithfully after that. This example illustrates how other kinds of interventions can produce dramatic but surprising results!

It was in 1974, when I joined the faculty of the University of Georgia to teach in its school social work program. As noted, Georgia's program dated to 1945, and it grew out of the State compulsory attendance law. However, Georgia did not have a school of social work in a public university until 1964. Elsie Nesbit had been instrumental in developing the educational program, then called the Visiting Teacher Program, but this program was a part of the College of Education until the School of Social Work was created in 1964. The name and the educational focus tended to hold back some of the desirable improvements in social work practice that were currently available.

Many of the early Visiting Teachers displayed remarkable ingenuity in practice approaches, which brought children to school and then made it possible for them to stay in school. These pioneer Visiting Teachers had brought into regular school attendance literally thousands of children who had never had the opportunity to attend school regularly. They also served vital roles in the desegregation of Georgia's schools.

I remember one of the Visiting Teacher graduate students in Georgia, who realized many of the pupils in his rural county came to school without breakfast. The teaching staff reported that the children were lethargic until after they had eaten the daily school lunch. The Board of Education had a breakfast program, but most children arrived at school by bus, too late to eat breakfast. It was determined impractical to schedule the school buses an hour earlier to make eating a regular breakfast possible. This Visiting Teacher proposed having the school buses operated 10 or 15 minutes earlier, and have the pupils ushered into the school cafeteria for a quick milk, juice, toast, or oatmeal cookie snack breakfast. The Board accepted this plan and implemented it. Things changed almost immediately. With a little food and some large muscle movement after getting off the bus, the children were much more ready to go to class for learning. This simple change had a system-wide effect of reducing behavior problems and improving attendance and learning.

Professional Development and Societal Change Through the 60's and 70's

The 1960s saw the mushrooming of the civil rights movement following the Brown decisions of the Supreme Court. The ego psychology casework model of practice was singularly irrelevant to the major societal phenomenon. Many individual social workers made efforts to modify their practice while searching for better techniques. This affected school social work, because many of these non-traditional activities were tried in the school. Within the broad arena of social welfare, there were new employment opportunities for social workers in community organization work.

School social work practice was affected by these events, and the literature began to reflect a search for better practice models. School social workers often played important roles in their school assignments in reference to civil rights, cultural diversity, and public education. This work was not well known, however, and there were few avenues for professionally publicizing these activities.

In the early 1960s, I was appointed Director of Special Education for the Springfield, Illinois Public Schools. This developed an incentive for me to go to school for post-master's study. By the late 1960s, I completed my doctorate in Special Education and Educational Administration at Illinois State University. There, I was introduced to both systems change theories and behavioral therapeutic approaches. In 1967, I joined the faculty of the School of Social Work at the University of Illinois. I soon had the opportunity to participate with Lela Costin and Ione Vargus in the development of the School-Community-Pupil model of practice. This model focused on problems of children, rather than children with problems.

The School-Community-Pupil Model of practice involved discovering, defining in behavioral terms, and assessing the social and educational problems affecting many children and then developing a social work plan for implementation. It was designed to collect "before data" and then "post implementation data." Planned practice supported both accountability and the demonstration of improvement. It also promoted close collaboration with other social workers and school personnel. I learned that school personnel, including those of us in social work and the other pupil services, were not usually prepared for this type of collaboration, otherwise called teamwork. This awareness resulted in my interest in developing teamwork among pupil service workers. Unfortunately, I realized after awhile, that my vision of teamwork rarely would be achieved in actual practice in the schools. It

was even difficult to have school social workers work together as a team on a common problem.

Organizational Developments in Social Work

During this period, several states developed statewide associations of school social workers, and several Midwestern states started the Midwest Conference on School Social Work. School Social Workers in Illinois also created the Illinois Association of School Social Workers. It was my honor to be selected as the second president of the Illinois School Social Workers Association and, of course, to participate in the Midwest Conference. At that time in Illinois, school social workers were so eager for professional identity and collaboration that in my one year of office, the membership doubled. The various states that created school social work associations seem to have continued the development of school social work. Many school social workers have lobbied for desirable state legislation and have learned to implement many effective approaches to helping children.

In the early 1970s, NASW came close to losing the school social work field of practice. The national assumption seemed to be that there were not many people practicing in this field, and it was all social work anyway. Toy Watson, then of Virginia, somehow published a short article for the NASW "News" requesting school social workers to contact the national office of NASW and identify themselves. I have been advised that the response to this article was overwhelming, but it was going unnoticed by the NASW leadership. One day, at the right time, a staff member who was supportive of school social work happened to drop all of these mailed responses and got the correct person's attention as this person helped to pick up all of these from the floor of the office. In picking up this scattered mail, it was possible to call attention to the fact that these letters were all from school social workers across country who were crying out for recognition and help. As several state associations were strong, and the Midwest Conference was a vital regional association, the demand was made to pay more attention to school social work. Fortunately, NASW began to attend to school social work.

In 1973-1974, the leadership of the Midwest Conference played a very important role in ensuring that Social Work became an important part of P.L.94-142, the Education of All Handicapped Children's Act. At the time of the law's enactment, NASW did not

become involved in advocating for school social work to be listed as one of the services described in the law. Because of the actions of the Midwest Conference, NASW began to advocate for school social work, and a service description for social work was written into the Federal Regulations. NASW began to follow through with assistance in providing leadership at the national level for school social workers.

P.L.94-142: Special Education and School Social Work

In 1975, the next question was, since school social work is in the regulations, what do we do now? By then, I had moved to the faculty of the University of Georgia. My boss, Dean Charles Stewart of the School of Social Work, and NASW, with Molly Freeman as staff assigned, provided some funds for a small leadership conference on school social work and handicapped children. The Proceedings of this Conference, held in Athens, Georgia, were then published by NASW as "Monograph #7, School Social Work and P.L.94-142, The Education of All Handicapped Children Act." Molly Freeman, Richard Edwards, and I served as editors. Those attending the conference, all of whom presented papers, were holding important positions in School Social Work. They were as follows: Richard Weatherly, University of Washington School of Social Work; Anne Mitchell, Jefferson County Schools, Colorado; Eleanor Felker, Minneapolis, Minnesota Schools; Barbara Jo Adolfi Morse, Fairfax County Schools, Virginia; Claire Gallant, Connecticut Department of Education; Wallace M. Lornell, State of New York Department of Education; and Paula Meares, Urbana Illinois, Public Schools. (Affiliations listed were those at the time of the conference.) I am pleased to note that, of those professions listed in the P.L.94-142 Regulations, School Social Workers were the first to produce a monograph about their function in special education under the then new law. This Monograph, published by NASW, had a widespread impact and brought needed attention to the value of social work services for handicapped children.

NASW Provides Leadership for School Social Work

NASW continued its leadership role and began planning for the first National Conference on School Social Work to be held since the original National Association of School Social Workers agreed to join in creating NASW. This conference was held in Denver, Colorado, in 1978. I served on the planning group for this conference, and all of us in the planning group were amazed and impressed with the great variety of practice approaches used by school social workers. NASW leadership was amazed at the fact that so many school social workers attended. It was a rousing success and provided the support for NASW to create and publish a professional journal for school social workers. The first issue was published in October 1978, and I had the excitement of serving as the first Editor-in-Chief for the journal *Social Work in Education.*

There was good staff support from NASW and an outstanding editorial board. Members of the first editorial board were Lela B. Costin of Illinois, Clair B. Gallant of Connecticut, Mable T. Hawkins of Pennsylvania, Steve P. Manos of California, Norma Radin of Michigan, and Rodney Schofield of Colorado. (Locations are of that date.) Beginning a professional journal, when there had been none, was difficult. First, school social workers were not accustomed to looking to NASW for needed professional literature. Second, school social workers were not accustomed to writing for professional journals, and it was necessary to search out and nurture authors as well as subscribers. In succeeding years, the *Journal* has grown into a valuable resource for this field of practice. Through many of the years that I served as Associate Dean, and after retirement, I continued to serve as a Consulting Editor for this journal, *Social Work in Education.*

The University of Georgia

By the late 1970s, changes were being made within the University and the State of Georgia to modify the traditional Visiting Teacher program in order to be concurrent with national standards for school social work. This was very difficult to do because of the interests of those already certified as Visiting Teachers under the old standards. The change was facilitated by the almost chance actions of others. A State Board of Education member asked, "What is this

Visiting Teacher Program?" When state education staff answered, "It is social work in the schools, the Board member said, "Let's call it what it is." At the University, the graduate school dean determined that there would be no University programs that did not meet national requirements for the profession. There were standards for school social work. There were none for visiting teacher work. During the 1980s, when I became Associate Dean of the School of Social Work, David Kurtz and Peggy Cleveland were employed as faculty specifically for school social work. They continued the development of Georgia School Social Work with the Master of Social Work degree as the route to full certification. The University of Georgia continues to provide an emphasis in school social work within the Master of Social Work degree.

In 1991, I resigned from my job as Associate Dean and returned to full time teaching until my retirement in 1994. As Associate Dean, I had been responsible for directing a grant funded training project, which prepared Georgia Division of Family and Children Services employees for public assistance, food stamps, and medicaid assignments. Following retirement, I was invited to continue this work on a part-time basis and have done so until the present time.

Reflections

At the time of my retirement from full time employment as a faculty member of the University of Georgia, I made notes on my years of involvement working in school social work and social work education. These reflections affirm for me the importance of the original opportunity that school social work provided in 1954, that is, the opportunity to provide an early intervention for the problems that children experience while of school age. Children certainly continue to have problems today. Some of these problems are the same, and some are different, but our practice models probably are not any more effective than those in use in the late 1950s, regardless of the fact that we have different names for many of them.

School social work has a great need for applied research to demonstrate the effective ways of helping children succeed in school. In my experience, teachers and school administrators are excellent colleagues, who desire to better the lives of children in their care, even though society has heaped additional responsibilities on them and the school as a social institution. Let me cite just one example. For many

years, the push for desegregation of our society was almost exclusively a responsibility of public education. And, regardless of the learning expectations of teachers for their charges, many children still do not come to school well fed, clothed, healthy, or loved. We, who purport to be helpful to children who attend school, need more and better expertise to do the work of school social work. A part of this needed expertise involves research. The other part is the professional preparation of social workers. Both need attention of the profession.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Since retirement in 1994, I have continued to live in Athens, Georgia. This year I celebrated my 50th wedding anniversary with my first wife. Both of us have been active travelers and participate in university and community affairs. Currently, I am a member of the board of directors for our regional council on aging and serve as president of our local Learning in Retirement (LIR). LIR is an affiliate of the Elderhostel and is sponsored by units of the University of Georgia. LIR provides non-credit courses on a wide variety of topics, travel/study, and social activities for about 200 eager learners, all of whom are retired.

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I SHOULD HAVE TAKEN NOTES!: MEMORIES OVER THE YEARS

Toy F. Watson

ABSTRACT

When I was asked to write a chronology of my activities related to School Social Work, I realized that I had not kept decent records. After reviewing some old resumes and obtaining materials from colleagues and other sources, I was able to pull together a review of this most exciting and challenging era in the development of this practice area. This is a somewhat personal narrative of my involvement as I recall it, and I only wish that I could identify and recognize the many fantastic individuals who were also a part of this effort.

When I was asked to write a chronology of my activities related to school social work, I was greatly flattered and honored...until I realized that I had no notes, documents, or material for reference. I managed to find an old resume that provided me with some dates and titles but little else. I then touched base with colleagues from years gone by and managed to pull together some memories.

My final 13 years of employment was as the director of pupil services for a large school district in a state that really did not want school social workers and in a district where bureaucratic politics were rife with egos, personal empires, and turf issues taking precedent over anything else. In 1991, the state offered an early retirement package that was too good to turn down, and I happily took advantage of it. Immediately upon retirement, I managed to leave social work, education, bureaucratic battles, and the like, and decided totally to spend my time pursuing interests and hobbies that previously had provided therapeutic escape to maintain my sanity.

I strongly support retirement as soon as a person can swing it and while one's health is good. Had I known life was this good, I probably would never have gone to work in the first place! But then, I would not have such precious memories of some amazing folks I met along the way. I do have one regret–I should have kept better notes!

Life in School Social Work

Upon completion of graduate school, I was initially employed by a private children's agency providing foster care along with child and parent counseling. After a couple of years with this agency, I was recruited to a local juvenile court services program to provide supervision services in a juvenile probation department whose responsibilities included child protective services, as well as the usual juvenile and domestic relations court service activities. This was a somewhat unique arrangement that had many positive features.

My life in school social work began in 1966, when the Richmond City (Virginia) Public Schools hired me to become supervisor of their Visiting Teacher program, thinking they were getting a good old-fashioned truant officer. I immediately found that the state of Virginia had no such thing as a school social worker, and I did not qualify as a visiting teacher, as I had no teaching experience in the public schools, a prerequisite for any type of certification in the educational system. Fortunately, Richmond wanted to build a comprehensive student services program with School Social Work as a major component.

The ensuing confrontation with the Virginia State Department of Education was not pleasant, but it resulted in the certification of school social workers. I became the first certified school social worker in Virginia, and, in the process, I learned a lot about bureaucratic turf protection, closed-mindedness, and manipulation. This crusade lasted over a period of several years and involved at least a couple of meetings with the chair of the State Board of Education, who had to direct the State Superintendent of Instruction to move on some things. I was labeled as a troublemaker early in my school social work career. The lessons learned in this effort were to serve me well in the future. The school administration wanted a strong program and encouraged national involvement on the part of supervisors and administrators.

Council on Social Work in Schools

I became active in the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) and other professional organizations and was president of the International Association of Pupil Personnel Workers (IAPPW) in 1973. I also became chair of the Council on Social Work in Schools for NASW in 1973. As a result of my prior confrontations with the

Virginia State Department of Education, I was well aware that NASW really did not have any standards or support for social workers in the schools.

The Council first met in 1973 and immediately realized that we did not know a lot about social workers in educational settings. We drafted an "Open Letter To Social Workers in Schools" that was published in the January 1974, issue of the NASW News. The response to this was overwhelming, with individuals, groups, and chapters from all across the United States sending lengthy comments and pleas for help and recognition.

Virginia Cooke (Ginger) was the staff person who was assigned to work with this Council, and she had the job of bringing these responses to the attention of the NASW administrative leadership. Ginger was one of the most talented and tireless people that I have ever had the opportunity to work with. She was able to synthesize information and organize material in the most concise and comprehensive way. Her efforts in compiling this material and attempting to get NASW staff leadership to take notice of this need were simply fantastic.

One of the more basic and most effective techniques that Ginger used was to carry the large stack of responses with her when she attended any internal meeting where key administrators would be present. If no one noticed them, she managed to drop them on the floor and then to describe what that stuff was that she was hauling around. It finally worked, and Ginger and I were authorized to attend a number of meetings around the country to meet with school social workers and hear their frustrations.

In 1973, we attended the Midwest School Social Work Conference. This was a most exciting and frustrating experience. We met with delegations from the various states that were represented. These meetings went well into the night, and, sometime, around 3 a.m., I walked Ginger to her room to find yet another state delegation camped in the hallway outside of her door to voice their concerns. It was extremely frustrating to have to tell these folks that NASW really did not have any support to offer them. Having just come through the wars with my own state of Virginia, I knew their hurt and was determined that something would be done.

Based on this experience, the Council undertook, formally, to survey the needs of school social workers, and, in early 1975, it developed and conducted a survey that included administrators, practitioners, and schools of social work. This survey was completed in September 1975. As a result of this survey and the demands from practitioners, a task force was formed to develop standards for the practice of social work in the schools. I ended up chairing this task

force from 1975 - 1977. These standards were developed through several marathon work sessions lasting into the early morning hours and were approved by the NASW Board of Directors in January 1978.

Public Law 94-142

In the midst of these efforts, I was invited to attend a meeting of the New York State School Social Work Association, where Tom Irvin, of the U. S. Office of Education, reviewed the newly passed federal law, Public Law 94-142 (Education of the All Handicapped Children Act). He reviewed the various requirements of this law and the services that would be provided for students. Conspicuous by its absence was school social work services. When I was introduced to Tom later, I asked why school social work was not included. His response was, "We didn't know you existed!"

In the ensuing discussion, we agreed to attempt to gain representation for school social work services in the regulations when they were written. It was somewhat frustrating to have been totally left out of this law. The task force on Social Work in Schools became very active, very vocal, and demanding of recognition for this area of practice. As a result of a number of efforts, I was appointed to represent NASW on the U. S. Office of Education's team to develop guidelines for P.L. 94-142.

This team met in 1976, in McLean, Virginia, and was composed of representatives from the U.S. Office of Education and a number of organizations representing handicapped children and service-providing agencies for these children. In preparing to attend the first meeting of this task force, I realized that NASW did not have a working definition of school social work services, so I hurriedly wrote one and was able to get it approved by the task force members before I arrived at the meeting.

At this first meeting, those of us around the table were asked to introduce ourselves and tell about who we represented. I was excited to be a part of such an august group and proudly stood to introduce myself as a representative of the National Association of Social Workers. I was taken aback somewhat when the chairperson said, "I don't wish to appear rude, but what does welfare have to do with our work here today?" I managed to maintain my cool and quickly reviewed the hurriedly written definition of school social work services and our work with those factors in a student's life that impact on his/her school adjustment.

The next question I was asked was, "Where were you when this law was being written?" I had no answer, but I assured the group that we were now here and ready to work. Instead of returning home from this meeting, I directly went to see Chauncey Alexander, NASW Executive Director, and demanded to know how NASW, located only a few blocks from the capitol and having a full time lobbyist on the staff, could have ignored this most important piece of legislation. I was not polite, and details of that meeting with the executive director of NASW are still clear in my memory. The bottom line was that NASW's priorities did not include social work in education. Tom Irvin became a strong supporter of our efforts to include School Social Work Services. When the regulations for P.L. 94-142 were released in August 1977, the definition of school social work services was included.

The next few years were extremely busy. I traveled extensively to meet with various state and professional organizations and conferences. School social workers across the country were becoming more visible and expressing their need to communicate with each other.

First National School Social Work Conference

The Task Force on School Social Work had become the Council on Social Work in Schools by this time, and it strongly felt that a national conference was needed immediately. The NASW administrative staff reluctantly agreed, but it was clearly understood that such a conference would have to be financially self-supporting and would not be held if the registration did not indicate fiscal independence. The first National Conference of School Social Workers was scheduled for April 1978, in Denver, Colorado. Anne Mitchell, from the Denver area, became chair of the Council, and I was appointed to chair this conference.

There was much speculation as to whether or not we would have adequate attendance. The NASW National Symposium was held in November 1977, and they were greatly excited to have an attendance of over 1000 social workers. One of my most emotional and vivid recollections of this period was that morning when I walked into the ballroom for the opening session of the First School Social Work Conference and found standing room only–people standing completely around the back walls of the auditorium. Over 900 people attended this conference. I returned to the lobby, and, with several task force members, quietly shed tears of sheer joy.

The program of this conference centered on the requirements and opportunities presented by P.L. 94-142. Tom Irvin, from the U. S. Office of Education, was the keynote speaker and recognized the vital contributions made by school social workers across the country. Chauncey Alexander was the Executive Director of NASW, and Art Katz was the President. They had intended to drop by the conference for brief greetings, but, when they realized that there were almost as many participants there as had been at the national symposium, they stayed for the full 3 days. They were gracious in their allowing me to say, "I told you we could do it."

School Social Work Expands

On April 28, 1978, less than 2 weeks after the conference, the NASW Board of Directors approved funding for a school social work semi-annual publication, support staff for the School Social Work Committee to have biannual meetings, and the creation of a central depository for written materials on school social work services. It was amazing what a little pressure from a unified group could accomplish! The journal, *Social Work in Education*, was first published in October 1978, and it contained selected papers from the Denver conference. These were extremely busy times for everyone involved in advocacy activities for social work services in the schools.

Testifying in Washington

I vividly recall my first testimony before a Congressional Committee. I flew to Washington determined to make an impressive presentation and convince those congressmen present of the importance of school social work services. I was met at the airport, given a copy of my prepared presentation, and driven to the Congressional Office Building. There were representatives from the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA), American Psychological Association, and the National School Nurses Association.

Upon entering the committee room, we were greeted by the clerk seated at a desk with a tape recorder and microphone. He was the only person in the room. He politely asked for the required two copies of our presentations and directed us to read them into the microphone at

the lectern. I don't think he heard a word we said. So much for the profound impression on members of Congress.

There were, however, other times when I appeared before various committees representing our interests and was received warmly by legislators who were very supportive of our efforts. Social work services in the schools became recognized as a legitimate service to pupils. Those legislators most receptive to us were the ones who had had contact with school social workers in their home localities. Grass roots work is essential. Take a member of Congress out to lunch.

NASW Board of Directors

Still feeling a need for stronger representation within NASW, school social workers launched a campaign to gain representation on the NASW Board of Directors, and, in 1979, I was elected board member at-large. Social work in education had become a viable force within the organization. We had developed our own journal, a national conference, and recognition within the educational world. There was, however, a constant undercurrent of feeling that this was not a legitimate area of practice.

During my term on the NASW Board from1979 to 1982, I attempted to represent the interests of school social workers. This was an exciting but frustrating experience, as NASW was, in my opinion, increasingly becoming concerned with private practice, clinical, and academic issues and less concerned with direct service providers. This was evidenced by the fact that well over half of the members of the board were either clinical practitioners or from academia. The confrontations that occurred on these issues were emotional, bitter, and caused some board members to threaten to resign, feeling that their interests were consistently minimized or ignored.

Board meetings were interesting, exciting, and very frustrating as we dealt with such issues as moving the national offices to Silver Spring, Maryland, Chauncey Alexander's retirement, and the need to become more closely associated with the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE). I felt then, and still feel, that NASW could provide more support and recognition for those social workers providing direct services in public agencies. By stating this opinion, I do not in any way mean to minimize the major contributions of NASW to the profession of Social Work. Without this organization, Social Work would not be the proud profession that it is today.

Standards of Practice for School Social Workers

Following success in becoming involved in the Education of the All Handicapped Children Act, school social workers increasingly became concerned about standards of practice and worked to develop a type of certification or recognition of professional competence. Given NASW's emphasis on licensing and "professional" standards, a campaign was launched to establish credentials for Social Work Practice in Education. I ended up heading an effort to develop a professional exam and to establish eligibility standards for the School Social Work Credential.

School social work was on the cutting edge and led the profession in the first development of Standards of Practice for a special practice area within the profession. NASW had a contract with Educational Testing Services of Princeton, New Jersey, and we worked closely with them to develop the exam as a part of a national credential for Social Work In Education. Concurrently, there was a major effort to establish a national alliance of pupil service organizations to support the team concept established in the Education of the Handicapped Laws. The National Alliance of Pupil Service Organizations (NAPSO) was established and began discussions aimed at establishing national recognition of the Pupil Services Team. This effort continued into the early 1980's with regular meetings of representatives from social work, guidance, school psychologists, and school nurses.

Near the end of this era, I again was selected to chair the Commission on Social Work in Education. Our efforts focused on strengthening support within NASW through the development of a School Social Work credential and promoting the efforts of NAPSO. Social workers in schools represented a small percentage of the total NASW membership, and resources for our efforts were diminishing.

The credential that was established was costly and had little meaning outside of the NASW organization. The NASW *Social Work* journal was felt by many to be too focused on theory and philosophical issues rather practical matters faced by practitioners. School social workers requested that the journal *Social Work in Education* be provided in place of *Social Work*, but this was not allowed, and the added subscription costs were felt to be unrealistic.

A Separate School Social Work Association

There was a growing feeling by school social workers that their needs might best be met through some organization other than NASW. As much as I resisted this idea, I had to agree that it was realistic. We were not able to generate the momentum necessary to regain the support of NASW, which was enjoyed a few years previously.

When I first became involved with NASW, I was working in juvenile corrections. At that time, the major issue was "do gooders" as opposed to "professionals" in the field of social work. I watched NASW lose those social workers in correctional settings shortly after they lost those in public welfare. The Academy of Certified Social Workers (ACSW) was created to recognize those who were "qualified" to do social work. I helped to write the initial ACSW exam. I recall one heated argument at a committee meeting, where I was severely chastised for suggesting that one did not have to have this title or even be a member of NASW to help kids effectively. I was still smarting from seeing my colleagues in juvenile corrections drummed out of the organization.

Over the years I made every possible effort to focus attention on the needs of those social workers providing direct service, particularly to children. I grew to believe that NASW, while the major force in making Social Work the outstanding profession that it is, was not providing the support and resources needed by those social workers providing direct services in public agencies, such as corrections, public welfare, and public education. I am of the opinion that the majority of social workers in direct service jobs simply do not have the time and/or resources to participate in additional activities required by various professional organizations. They have to be at work every day. Administrators, academicians, and private practitioners apparently can juggle their schedules to allow time for the endless meetings, while direct service workers must be on the job daily.

I have been extremely fortunate, in that my employers strongly supported my involvement in these activities. I found that if I were able to demonstrate the value of these services at the local level, I could fight for them at the state and national level. The two programs for which I had responsibility, Social Work Services of the Richmond Public Schools and Pupil Services for the Newport News Public Schools, became highly recognized for their focus on pupil support and teamwork with other disciplines and community resources. This resulted in strong local support, state, and national recognition, and administrative backing for my advocacy efforts. I sometimes suspect

that one of the reasons that I was encouraged to become involved in these activities was that it got me out town where I was not harassing my boss or the school board!

It has been an unbelievable experience. The process of pulling together the memories for this paper has left me somewhat overwhelmed, when I recall the endless meetings, the frustrations, the tears, and the ecstasy we experienced. I say "we," because I have met and worked with some amazing folks over the years. There are faces and moments that I shall always remember. I consider myself extremely privileged to have shared these experiences with some of the greatest colleagues one could have.

Special Recognition: Virginia Cooke Rogers, Molly Freeman, and Isadora Hare

There are three folks who worked within NASW and deserve special recognition. Without the behind-the-scenes efforts and support of these individuals, most of what was accomplished simply would not have happened. Virginia Cooke Rogers, whom I mentioned earlier, was a master organizer and tireless worker. Ginger could organize, conceptualize, and present material better than anyone I have ever known. She regularly took work home with her, because there was not adequate time to work on school social work matters at the office. In the midst of these efforts, she took a much deserved vacation to Hawaii, met a photographer at the airport, fell in love, got married, and left NASW.

Molly Freeman followed Ginger and walked into a hurricane of activity. I vividly recall a late night meeting in a hotel room in Washington where the task force was attempting to come to terms with standards for school social work practice. Arguments were vocal, intense, and strong. Molly was totally intimidated by the intensity of these efforts. However, she soon became a master of mediating such meetings and working with the diverse personalities on the task force. In her calm and insightful way, she provided a calming influence on a very volatile group of frustrated people.

Molly was followed on staff by Isadora Hare. Over the years I have worked with and known Isadora, I have come to admire her dedication, knowledge, and perseverance. In the hectic times of developing legislation and regulations, she was able to manipulate our being involved in numerous activities with the U.S. Department of Education and various legislative committees and boards. Within

NASW she was a tireless voice in the wilderness promoting school social work at every opportunity. When Isadora left the national office, a strong voice for School Social Workers was lost.

It is most unfortunate that NASW apparently has lost much of the support of social workers in schools. School Social Work, however, is now a strong and viable field of practice and will survive on its own merit. It is recognized by parents, students, educators, and legislators as an essential component of comprehensive services to pupils. There is yet much to be done, and school social workers constantly must strive to gain the necessary support and resources to meet the needs of pupils.

Final Thoughts

I just read through this paper and find that it is more a review of my personal involvement and activities rather than an objective presentation of the struggles and triumphs of School Social Work as a field of practice. I would like very much to have the documentation, specific facts and names to make this a more professional review of this era, but I simply am not able to do that. During that time it was an all-consuming activity for me, so I present it here as I recall it from having lived it.

I shall never forget the final remarks of the superintendent at the first general staff conference I attended when I went to work for the Richmond City Schools. He said, "Remember, the parents of this city send us the very best students they have." The parents of this country send us the very best pupils they have. We can do no less than provide them with the very best services possible. Who knows, some day some of them might become school social workers and continue these efforts to help all pupils be the best they can be. My suggestion to all school social workers is never to underestimate the importance of the work you do, and keep better notes than I did!

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Toy F. Watson retired in 1991, as Director of Pupil Services for the Newport News Public Schools (Virginia), a position he held for 13 years. Prior to that time he served as Supervisor of School Social Work Services for the Richmond (Virginia) Public Schools. Before working the schools, he worked in a private family agency and supervised a juvenile court service program. He also served as adjunct faculty in the Schools of Social Work and Education at Virginia Commonwealth University for many years. Throughout his career he was active in efforts to promote services to children and has held leadership roles in numerous local, state and national organizations. Presently retired and living in Williamsburg, Virginia, he spends his time sailing the Chesapeake Bay, volunteering for Colonial Williamsburg, playing tennis, and enjoying life. Colleagues visiting Williamsburg are invited to give him a call. Toy F. Watson, 114 Muirfield, Williamsburg, VA 23188, toyf@widomaker.com

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MY LIFE AS NASW'S SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK COORDINATOR

Molly Plunkett Freeman

ABSTRACT

This article is a reflection of the author's experiences as the NASW's Coordinator of Services to School Social Workers. Molly relays that her timing of entering the position was an especially rich time for change and progress in the field of school social work. She was hired in 1976, and, in 1977, she was instrumental in developing the definition of school social work services that was included in the Federal Regulations for P.L. 94-142. She shares her recollection of the development of nationwide recognition for school social workers. She provided staff support to the NASW committees that defined and implemented NASW's service to school social workers.

I was hired in the fall of 1976, by the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) as Coordinator of Services to Social Workers who were employed in the schools. I was green behind the ears, having just received my master's degree that spring. I was known in the national office of NASW, having had one of several field placements there during my 3 years in school. In addition, I had behind me 16 years of raising five children, all of whom were in public school at the time. As a parent, I'd been actively engaged in work with teachers, administrators, and other parents in our common cause of improving educational opportunities for children.

Toy Watson, then chair of the NASW Task Force on Social Work in Schools, and Virginia Cooke, my predecessor on the NASW staff, had worked hard to give school social work practice higher visibility within NASW. With Ginger Cooke's departure from the staff, there was no question that a replacement would be hired to continue the work in this arena. I came to the job with every expectation of acceptance and support.

On top of that, I had an office. It was a tiny cubicle, but it seemed palatial to me. There were pencils that my children didn't commandeer, pads of paper without scribbles, available coffee that I hadn't made down the hall, and, best of all, a telephone. I was a little

like the proverbial kid let loose in the candy store.

Within my first weeks on the job, I was sent to Richmond to meet Toy Watson. He was friendly, pleasant, and waited, thankfully, until many months later to tell me that he hadn't thought I'd be tough enough to do the job. My own trepidations rose to the surface when I went to the Midwest Conference on School Social Work in the fall of 1976. It was in that setting, with slightly trembling knees but a stiff spine, that I realized that there was serious work that needed to be done in Washington if our profession was going to claim its rightful place in the overall national education system.

While a great deal of work had been done across the country, including over 100 letters to the Department of Education from school social work practitioners and social work testimony in many states, the regulations for P.L. 94-142, the Education of All Handicapped Children Act, were still in process and, possibly, still awaited our input. We were fortunate in having a sympathetic listening ear in the Department of Education. Tom Irvin heard our concern and was open to working social work practice into the proposed "regs." Drafts of the definition of social work practice in the schools had been discussed widely. This all seemed leisurely until the morning that the call came from Mr. Irvin saying that he needed a definition within 24 hours. With a flurry of final consultations, the definition that appeared in the final "regs" was submitted. I'll never forget the long summer that I spent wondering whether what we'd submitted would be accepted, or my pleasure that when the final regulations were released on August 23, 1977, they included social workers.

Through that experience, I learned, too, the importance of being well positioned within the Federal bureaucracy. The head of the special services unit at that time was a speech therapist. It was that specialty that was required under the regulations.

It was entirely coincidence that my tenure at NASW came at a time when a national contact and a national presence were needed. The passage of P.L. 94-142, along with the creation of the Department of Education, increased the Federal presence in the field of education. It was an ideal time to create nationwide connections amongst school social workers already active at the state and regional level. Both my training in community organization and my instincts as an individual led me to capitalize on that opportunity.

Its success was based on the multiple contacts that I had made across the country. This leads me back to the telephone, which I used with increasing frequency. Through Ginger's and Toy's work, I knew the names of state leaders across the country. I'd place a call and within minutes or hours find myself talking with a skilled practitioner,

who not only shared my interest in children, but had found the time and energy to organize professionally to secure a hold within the educational system. Whatever the organizational suspicions or distrust, the person was there, open, hard working, and deeply engaged in making the process of education available to children. Without exception, those were both pleasant and enriching contacts. In memory, they make me proud of our profession.

With the publication of the 94-142 "regs" and as the development of continued nationwide contacts increased, the idea of a First National Conference of Social Workers in the Schools emerged. Under the leadership of Toy Watson and Anne Mitchell, who succeeded Toy as Chair of the NASW Committee, the conference was held in Denver, Colorado in April 1978. The conference was a major event that contributed to NASW's adoption at General Assembly of a policy of bringing service to specialty groups to the top of the agenda.

In November 1977, NASW's Committee on Social Work Services in the Schools, chaired by Anne Mitchell, and later by Lorraine Davis, defined various aspects of a national focus of work with school social workers. In the following 6 years, work was done in each area. A second national conference was held in Washington, D.C. in May 1981, which allowed multiple contacts with political leaders. An NASW journal, *Social Work in Education,* began publication in October 1978. Under a grant from the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, Claire Gallant offered nationwide workshops, training social workers as mediators. Her book, *Mediation in Special Education Disputes*, was published by NASW in 1982. Joint workshops were held with the Universities of Georgia and Connecticut. NASW took the lead in organizing the National Alliance of Pupil Services Organizations. National standards for social work services in the schools were developed and disseminated.

A point came when I realized that a different kind of staff support in the NASW national office was needed to carry on the work. It came in the form of Isadora Hare, a skilled school social work practitioner and a scholar, who picked up the many threads and connections that I felt I needed to put down. My work with school social work professionals constituted a very happy period in my life. I look back on that opportunity with a wealth of gratitude and very fond memories.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

After leaving NASW, Molly Freeman worked as a foundation director and later as a Coordinator of Volunteers at a Unitarian Church in central Washington, D.C. She retired in the mid-1990s, and most recently was seen at the National Zoo with three of her six grandchildren, observing pandas and a baby giraffe.

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SERVING STUDENTS BY BUILDING COMMUNITY: A CONVERSATION WITH RON KUEHL, MSW

Andrea Bevernitz

ABSTRACT

Prior to his retirement, Ron Kuehl met with interviewer and social work colleague, Andrea Bevernitz, to discuss his public and professional achievements during 27 years as a school social worker in Oshkosh, Wisconsin. The reader will come to appreciate how his accomplishments were rooted in the professional values of concern for the importance of human relationships and the welfare of individuals and community. The reader will also learn about the many and varied roles he assumed in his acclaimed work with students, parents, teachers, colleagues, administrators, and the larger community.

For 27 years, Ron Kuehl, MSW, served as School Social Worker at North High School in Oshkosh, Wisconsin. The only social worker employed at the high school, he organized and implemented group supervision meetings with other school social workers throughout the North East Wisconsin region; those meetings have continued for years under his leadership. In addition to his work in the school, he has served as board or advisory committee member to many community agencies, including the Conflict Resolution Center, the Peer Mediation Center, Sexual Abuse Services, Big Brothers and Sisters, Head Start, Oshkosh Housing Project, University of Wisconsin Social Work Department's Community Liaison Committee, and Advocap Community Action Program. His advocacy for youth and commitment to community-youth programming led the Oshkosh City Council to identify him as "School Social Worker for the City," award him the name of "Mr. School Social Worker," and proclaim a "Ron Kuehl Day." In 1988, he received the Kohl Award, an honor awarded annually by the Herb Kohl Educational Foundation in Wisconsin. In this interview, conducted on March 23, 2000, just prior to his retirement, Ron Kuehl shares his values, knowledge and experiences.

Interview with Ron Kuehl

Mr. Kuehl, I'd like to learn about your background, your training, and how you became a school social worker.

I was a rural farm kid in southern Wisconsin. I went to high school and played sports there. I don't think I ever talked to a guidance counselor about a career direction or what to do with my life. When I got out of school, my dad asked if I wanted to work on the farm, but that wasn't what I wanted to do. I stayed out of school for a year after high school and did drafting work for a company, but I soon figured out that wasn't where I belonged either. So, I sent for college catalogues and looked at the undergraduate degree programs, and I thought social work looked interesting. I applied to Wartburg College, a small private school in Iowa, and I majored in social work. The head of the social work department, Lola Reppert, inspired me greatly. I learned from her and others that my own interests meshed with social work. I wanted a career that was non-routine, that would provide variety, would allow me to work with people, and would help me to be involved in the larger world.

One of my professors encouraged me to go on to graduate school right away. So I went on for my Masters in Social Work at the University of Wisconsin, Madison. My field placements were with Dane County Department of Human Services one year and with a community organization project on the south side of Madison in the other year.

Since I had attended school on a stipend, I was required to work for a state or county child welfare agency for one year. My first job was in Oshkosh, Wisconsin, in the county social services agency. For 5 years I worked with youth and families in several different positions there in foster care, Aid to Families with Dependent Children, juvenile delinquency, and as a group work trainer. During that time, a new high school had opened in Oshkosh, and many of my county clients were enrolled in that new school. School social work was a relatively new concept to me; at least I hadn't been exposed to it in school. The city asked me to apply for the position because of my experience with youth and families. I remember debating with myself about whether to apply, since the school system paid less than the county services position. But, after talking with my wife and others, it seemed like the right thing to do. I started as School Social Worker with North High School in fall 1973.

So you became a school social worker after having 5 years of youth and family work in another setting. What did you discover about working in the school setting?

I think early school social workers often served as truant officers. This district felt that just retrieving kids wasn't enough. There were more issues that needed to be addressed. So, part of my responsibility was to counsel and support chronic truants or kids who were leaving school without permission. The other part of my responsibility in the early days was in serving special education needs. The Special Education laws had been enacted, and the school was gearing up to provide services for learning disabled and emotionally disabled students. There were requirements placed upon the schools and funding provided to the schools. Originally, the state provided 60% of the school social worker's salary, if 50% or more of the social worker's time was spent with Special Education populations.

Right away, I liked the students, the schedule, and the opportunities to help with the start-up of a new school. But, there were some very real challenges. The drug culture was beginning to have an influence, and the Vietnam War was still underway, so society was in upheaval. A lot of institutions were being threatened, and youth were reacting to the social conditions, just like adults were.

I was always an advocate for youth, and this position allowed me to advocate for them both in the school and throughout the community. I remember spending a lot of time, especially in good weather, outside the school with the kids who were lingering and loitering. Some were skipping school, others were hanging out in the smoking area in back. A lot of my work was going out to them and working with them in groups right on the blacktop. I also talked with parents and conducted training with teachers. We'd get together in small groups and discuss issues of importance to them, the school, and the students. I was young. I didn't have all the answers, but I had a lot of energy. It was exciting. I think I had been here for a very short time when I realized this was where I belonged.

It's now my twenty-seventh year. One thing about working in high schools, maybe about all schools, is that it keeps you young. You are always working with the same aged primary population, the 14 to 18 year old. As a result, you stay current with youth issues. The work is very dynamic. Your clientele are always present. You see the youth in a lot of different capacities. You see them in counseling, while chaperoning a dance, when you're walking through the hallways, or when you're eating lunch together. You see the students grow and change over the 4 years of high school.

I'm interested in hearing about some of the work you're doing with the students.

Well, as I said, I work with students individually, and I also conduct some student groups. But, I can only do a limited amount on my own. A lot of what I do is mobilize resources to meet the broader needs of the school. For instance, a program I helped develop is the Truancy Intervention Program. This is funded by a grant we wrote with the University of Wisconsin Oshkosh Career Development Program. It serves youth who become truant in middle and high school. The problems are usually a lot more than not going to school or missing school a lot. Part of that program is to match college students with these public school students. The college volunteers serve a variety of roles, such as role models, encouragers, and problem solvers. They meet together two or three times a week. There are also a couple of volunteer tutors who work very actively with the students. They're here every day. A lot of the students who work with these volunteers have fallen very far behind their age group in both social and academic skills.

Most recently, I have been active in developing a peer mediation program in which youth are trained to work with other youth to resolve conflicts. The administration supported my interest, assisted me in securing funding, and sent me to a week long training by a nationally recognized mediation group using the Quaker model. I've taken additional training at the Conflict Resolution Center in Oshkosh. Originally, I mediated the student conflicts, but, in order to expand the service, I began training students to mediate. Now, the program is expanding again, because this year a community volunteer has assumed the responsibility of coordinating the program after my retirement. She also has completed nationally recognized mediation training. There will probably be over a hundred mediations in our school this year.

We're one of the few high schools in this area with a peer mediation program. This program grew out of a concern about student tension interfering with the functioning of the school. We noticed that common problems like boyfriend-girlfriend break-ups, name-calling, and friendship problems were affecting everyone. We have a community of 1400 students, and tensions surface at times when so many people rub shoulders everyday. Some of the recent situations calling for mediation intervention resulted from students who didn't know each other and who bumped into each other in the hall and began to fight. Yesterday, we had two kids who suddenly got up in biology class, started swearing, and were ready to go after each other in class. We've also lately seen a lot of name-calling, especially among the girls. We've had some situations where students have become violent. We

bring the parties together to work out the problems. We address feelings and help students come up with their own solutions. Sometimes, parents get involved too. We can't mandate that parents come in, but sometimes they choose to participate in the mediation. We try to help them get to a point where they can face each other and come to an agreement, so they can be in the same environment without harassing or hurting each other. Sometimes, there have been conflicts or disagreements between students and teachers. We have some teachers who've participated in a mediation process with students. For the teachers who have been willing to do that (and staff aren't mandated to participate in mediation), it's been quite successful.

And is there special programming you do in your work with Special Education students?

I have worked hard to integrate the special education students into the daily school programming and to build understanding between the teachers and the students and the students' families. Sometimes, there's a lot of anger and fear about kids who need help. So, I have worked with teachers and kids and families around whatever issues emerged. I know a lot of social workers get caught up in paperwork and with social histories, with M-team reports and other reports, with convening meetings, etc. I was fortunate enough, or made it so, that I could find other people who were better at that and who didn't seem to mind doing those tasks. I've been the advocate, the counselor, the intervener. As a social worker, I feel the counseling and other interventions take priority.

Once we had a very big program for hearing impaired children. There was a bubble of youth with hearing problems as a result of a measles outbreak. Staff was often uneasy about working with these students, especially when they stepped outside of the traditional compliant or cooperative behaviors. I worked with the teachers, the families, and the students to help build some understanding and methods of meeting the students' needs. I also took signing lessons myself, so I could be more effective in my own interventions with the students.

Would you tell me about your work with the teachers?

Yes. Since I've been here a long time, I've gained a reputation for being a person with some knowledge to share. Teachers frequently seek me out for consultation, both formally or informally. I do some consulting formally with larger groups. A lot of it is with departments, with two, three, or four teachers at a time. Recently, a

number of students have been identified as having problems in the math classes. They've shown both anger and attendance problems. The teachers were getting pretty angry in return. I reached out to the students and got them some tutoring help. I also sat down with the teachers and talked about tactics that would be helpful in reducing the anger and attendance problems in the classes. I try to foster collaborative problem solving. I share what I know about what's been helpful with these students in the past or with others in similar situations in the past. And, then there's the consulting I do informally. I might be stopped in the bathroom, for instance. I can hardly go anywhere without being asked about certain situations. When I sit down for lunch, someone might come up to say, "Oh, by the way...."

There isn't a lot of turnover in teaching, but a lot of teachers have retired in the past 5 years. Now, almost two-thirds of our staff is new to the profession. I've been working with a lot of younger teachers. Some are subject-smart but not kid-smart. They have to learn quickly or they're going to have trouble. A lot of first year teachers feel panicky or upset over discipline issues. They may be unsure about how to control their classes or how to respond to certain students. They'll often consult with me about these issues and review what they've tried. Teaching is an all day, every day activity that can be pretty overwhelming.

Describe the relationship you've had with the school administration.

Well, just as I have mentored new teachers, I've served as mentor to new assistant principals too. The principal, superintendent, and others often consult with me about issues that are affecting the school, and I've often presented information to the community about these issues and obtained or developed resources to address them. I have been with the school for so long, and my reputation of knowing the system and being willing to share my knowledge has supported my partnership with the administration. The school administration has been supportive of my role and the work I do. In fact, they fought to keep me as a full-time social worker at North High when there was pressure for spreading the position across schools. It's probably more difficult for school social workers to stay full time in one school now. Schools are expanding services, there are increased financial pressures, and the government has set limits on growth at only 3% per year.

You have mentioned working with parents. Tell me about some of your work with them.

I work with parents all the time. Although parents sometimes initiate the contact with me, I do a lot of reaching out to parents. Sometimes, we meet at the school, but sometimes I feel it's best to meet on their turf. Some parents are suspicious or angry or don't like schools. Maybe they didn't do well in school themselves. I've been here long enough now that I am working with the kids of former students.

I've had a few parents call to say, "Help, remember me, I used to behave badly in school, but now it's my kid." Sometimes, parents call to say, "I can't get my child out of bed. They just won't get up." I've gone to the home, and I've gotten kids out of bed, out of locked bathrooms, and so on.

Sometimes, parents will call me about a concern, and I will start the process of intervention with them. I've had to work with parents dealing with very sad situations. For instance, this past fall one of our students committed suicide. Other serious life and death issues, such as a student's eating disorder, might necessitate my involvement with parents. I don't do long term counseling, but I think it's important to talk about the situation before attempting to refer people to an appropriate service.

You seem to do a lot of counseling. Is it a trend for the school social worker to provide more counseling?

Probably. The need is so great. There are a lot of people, for instance people, who can't express things well verbally, for whom traditional counseling is not all that helpful. I might get calls some weeks from the same parent three or four times. A school social worker gets to know the student or the parent well. We might have been successful with one kid, and now they have another kid coming along. They'll call and say, "Well, here I am again." There are also a lot of single parents who don't have the money or the insurance or the trust to invest in counseling, so they start with the school. The school social worker is very accessible. My own experience has been that I've always done a lot of counseling. I've had to be careful not to take on too many cases, since there are so many other roles involved in school social work. I've had to sort out when I should provide the counseling and when I should refer. One of my responsibilities is to find counselors in the community who are experienced and who provide good service to families and youth. I'll usually give parents the names of two or three counselors.

Another area of unmet needs is health care. We've developed, within the school system, a Kid's Care program. It's a program where we have nurses in the community who provide health care and medication to families who don't have insurance or money enough to pay for such services. There are a lot of unmet health needs, especially dental issues. We're trying to address these needs.

Are the problems different now from those when you started 27 years ago?

When I began, it was the early 1970s. We were a new school with a modern, open concept, trying to become established. In some ways, things are better now, and, in other ways, they're tougher. Vandalism was more of a problem then. Sexuality was flaunted and displayed more then, in very challenging ways. I think there were more fights and there was more open drug use. There was more chaos and overt challenge then.

If you walk through our hallways now, it's looks peaceful. But, I think kids are not very hopeful about the future. They doubt the importance of school. More and more students seem to feel no real direction in their lives. They seem to have few goals. If they pass, they pass. If they don't, they don't. Part of what seems to be spurring this is that, in many cases, there isn't much support or solidity at home. It seems that more kids are involved in drug and sexual activities at younger ages than we used to see. More 13- and 14-year-old students are experimenting with or abusing drugs and alcohol and sex. Their bodies may be mature, but their emotional selves aren't. Coupled with this, youth seems less responsive to or concerned about consequences. More and more youth I've been dealing with have gone to jail but don't consider it to be all that serious. Running away or at least staying away from home for significant periods of time is also fairly common. There are irresponsible adults in the 20- to 35-year-old range, who let these teenagers stay with them for three or four days and who sometimes exploit them. We have people coming from the big cities, Milwaukee, Chicago, and Minneapolis-St Paul, to look for girls. We just had two freshman girls in here today who had been on the run for most of last week. One told me they got involved with nine guys from Chicago, that they had sex with them, and used drugs all week. Now, one is afraid she's pregnant. That story is not so uncommon anymore.

When you compare conditions 27 years ago and now, the rebellion then seemed to be encouraged by the social conditions of the 1970s. Now, it's not rebellion so much as it is a loss of connection and purpose. That may also be a reflection of cultural trends today. I'd like to hear you talk about that a little more.

Many students today do seem lost and lonely. Of course, there are some who are very connected to others, are goal oriented, and who seem to have a clear purpose in life. But my concern is with the underdeveloped, underachieving group. Some will work through it by the time they're 20 or 25. If they don't get hurt too badly or don't have a baby or two along the way or get involved in the drug scene, they'll be just fine eventually. Over the years, I've had several people come up to me in the community, tap me on the shoulder, and say, "Hey, do you remember me? I bet you never thought I'd amount to anything. Well, I'm a supervisor now, and I've got three kids. You want to see the pictures?" And they're real proud. So, I know if I can support and help students deal with the day-to-day problems, most will do okay. But I'm concerned about what seems to be a growing number of youth who have poor social and academic skills and who are not motivated or encouraged to develop them. I believe this will be a growing concern over time for society as a whole. It's clear there is no simple answer to the problems we see in the school system. We're finding the same problems in elementary and middle schools.

Each of us leaves a legacy for those who follow. Now that you are about to retire, what is your legacy?

I think I'll be remembered as a person who cared about the welfare of youth and community. I've worked tirelessly to create and sustain alliances between the school and community agencies so that students and parents have access to the resources they need to do well. I've worked very hard at the community and regional level, and, even though I am retiring, I plan to continue volunteering and working for youth in the community.

I am not a writer. I've never been published. I've made presentations at local and regional conferences about different issues related to working with youth. I've served on community boards and advisory committees. I am an encourager, a facilitator, and a coordinator. My strength has been in pulling together people with specific talents and linking them to programs and resources. I'm creative that way. For example, about 5 years ago, three or four of us in the community started saying, "We keep proposing and keep writing grants, but we're losing the battle. How can we harness the resources

in this community better?" Those concerns spurred us to start the Oshkosh Collaboration Workgroup. We've had over 100 people from about 40 agencies come together once a month. The goals have been to get to know each other, to develop trust, and to develop collaborative projects. We're trying to work together on programming rather than competing or working in isolation. Many grants have now been written collaboratively. It used to be that different agencies in the same community were writing for the same grant, and nobody knew what other agencies were interested in doing. Collaboration may not be the answer, but it may help us find some answers. We hope to modify the system enough so we can shift staff and dollars to more efficiently provide service. We try to get people together to identify the needs, the barriers, and some solutions. Sometimes, it's finding grant money for new projects. Other times, one agency spearheads a project.

Right now we are working on a family resource concept. Several agencies and organizations have stand-alone family programs that might be stronger and more effective if they were linked with each other. For example, the school district has been looking at how their buildings and facilities might serve early childhood needs. The Exchange Club program on parenting and Head Start are involved. The University (of Wisconsin at Oshkosh) wants to refine and improve their teacher training. The local hospital runs a screening program to identify unmet needs of first time parents. The Collaboration group is an idea generator. It is a place to come together, connect, and generate energy, so agencies can change and work together. Collaboration is hard work. Sometimes, people and agencies feel threatened. But, I think we have eased some of the fears. Our group tends to keep growing. We like what's going on, and we keep challenging each other and ourselves. It's been really energizing work for me. This is the community work that I talked about before. I think you can work one-on-one with individuals from time into eternity, but that can never be enough to truly accomplish change. One has to find ways to influence development of a more effective and caring system. Some of our systems are impersonal and uncaring. They turn people off or turn people away. They address only one part of a person's life, and a client has to go to one agency for one service and to another agency for another service. Who has that kind of energy?

As you prepare for retirement in a few weeks, you've probably also looked ahead at the work that still needs to be done. I'm wondering what you think is in the future for the educational system?

Well, I have thought about that. If you look through this school today, I think the biggest difference you'd see is related to the

use of computer technology. We have long distance learning laboratories in high school now. Overall, students are learning more at a faster pace, or, at least, they are expected to learn more at an earlier age. Will it come to a point where people will be able to do their learning at home with technology? In the next 25 to 30 years, I think you will have a percentage of kids who will spend less time in this building, if they are able to accelerate through other courses at home, using computers and other electronic technologies. We are starting to have courses offered between countries, across geographical boundaries. Before long, this will be available everywhere. How to teach and coordinate and evaluate this kind of curricula is going to be a difficult challenge.

Another area for potential change is in school scheduling. Block scheduling has been a big emphasis around the country and the state. Block scheduling, depending upon what model you use, might have three or four classes offered in a day instead of the seven class periods currently offered. The research suggests that students don't necessarily learn better, but the climate of the school is a little better. There isn't as much time spent passing in the halls, and there aren't as many different teachers to work with. In the traditional model, you'd take English for a whole year, whereas, in the block model, you'd complete the course in 10 to 12 weeks. There are fewer classes but greater intensity of study.

And for those students who don't succeed in curriculum models like those, alternative learning strategies need to be developed. I always thought I'd like to get 10 students working someplace downtown, for example, with an electrician. They could enroll at age 16. It's kind of like the European model. Even younger kids, in some cases, might start working 4 or 5 hours with their teachers, going on-site to work with them an hour or two. Students would learn and use English and writing and math as it related to their jobs.

What would social work be doing in this model?

As the change process occurs, developmental and emotional issues for people are raised. There may be more loneliness. There will very likely be fear of the changes. These are exciting times for a lot of people but scary times for others. Basic needs, of course, will continue to exist. All human beings want to love and be loved. We want to have someone to listen to us and care about us. We all experience fear and hurt and anger. Adjusting and accommodating to the changes will be an ongoing issue. I think there'll be a big need for advocacy for people who can't keep up. We might refine when and where we deliver our services. I don't know if services will be offered from an

office within a school or if the social worker will be out in the community more. I do believe that community agencies will need to offer coordinated services. The school social worker could very well be a community social worker. It'll be interesting. I always look forward to change, and it's coming fast. In the long run, I'm very optimistic. I think that the work I've done for the past 27 years will provide a strong foundation for the future.

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REDUCING SCHOOL-BASED BULLYING

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ABSTRACT

Curbing aggressive behavior is essential to school safety, but school staff members often overlook bullying, because they do not recognize it or do not know how to respond. To decrease in-school bullying, schools must create a positive climate; discuss bullying openly; refuse to accept the behavior; develop consistent, non-shaming consequences; keep records on aggressive actions; involve student witnesses, parents, and teachers; increase hallway and playground monitoring; create support programs for victims that teach problem solving and assertiveness skills; and help bullies become more empathic. Because preventing and reducing bullying requires a holistic system-wide approach, school social workers are well equipped to implement anti-bullying programs in their schools.

The problem of school-based violence has received broad coverage in the media and is causing alarm across the nation. Tragic school shootings by students who were "picked on" by other students have called attention to the role that bullying can play in perpetuating this violence. While a small number of students who have been teased and threatened by others turn to violent acts, others respond by withdrawing from school participation and feeling badly about themselves (Shakeshaft et al., 1995). School social workers can play an important role in addressing bullying, a problem too often tolerated in schools.

Bullying is a "type of aggression in which (1) the behavior is intended to harm or disturb, (2) the behavior occurs repeatedly over time, and (3) there is an imbalance of power, with a more powerful person or group attacking a less powerful one. This asymmetry of power may be physical or psychological, and the aggressive behavior may be verbal (e.g., name-calling, threats), physical (e.g., hitting), or psychological (e.g., rumors, shunning/exclusion)" (Nansel et al., 2001, p. 2094).

Neither the location nor the size of the school appears to have an effect on the extent of bullying, as large and small schools in both urban and rural areas report similar rates of bullying (Whitney &

Smith, 1993). School-based bullying is most likely to take place (in order of frequency) on the playground, in classrooms, and in hallways (Siann, Callaghan, Glissov, Lockhart, & Rawson, 1994). It also may take place on the way to and from school, but with less frequency (Siann et al., 1994; Whitney & Smith, 1993). School social workers who work directly with special education students are keenly aware that bullies often single out children with learning deficits as victims (Hoover & Juul, 1993; Lowenstein, 1995b).

School social workers, by nature of their position as advocates, consultants, and counselors in schools, often are informed of bullying behavior. Unfortunately, social work literature on the topic of bullying is nearly nonexistent. The purpose of this article, therefore, is to gather research on bullying from other sources and identify prevention and intervention strategies for use by school social workers.

Extent of Bullying in Schools

It is difficult to compare studies on bullying, as researchers use different definitions to describe the phenomenon. Research is confounded further by differences in the understanding of bullying from school to school. Siann et al. (1994) report that schools that have bullying programs in place are more sensitized to bullying and are more likely to label aggressive behavior as bullying than those without such programs. Observation of behavior is limited by the fact that bullying generally takes place away from adult observation (Mooney, Creeser, & Blatchford, 1991), so research must generally rely on student reports. Besides the fact that student perceptions are subjective, research on bullying is constrained by student reluctance to discuss bullying with researchers (Siann et al., 1994; Whitney & Smith, 1993) for fear that bullying will escalate and because students do not believe that teachers and other adults will do anything about it (Mooney et al.).

Research on bullying is complicated further by different locations and age groups that have been studied. While bullying apparently exists in nearly every culture (Horne & Socherman, 1996), it is not clear that studies done in one area can be generalized to another. Caution is in order before applying what has been learned about bullying in other countries to schools in the United States.

Studies conducted in Norway (Olweus, 1991, 1995) and Great Britain (Austin & Joseph, 1996) indicate that somewhere between 9% and 38% of elementary students are bullied regularly. In a Norwegian sample, 10% admitted to physically bullying others (Olweus, 1991),

and 57% of students in a British sample said that they had teased other students (Mooney et al., 1991). While elementary-age boys and girls were found in a British study to be equal perpetrators, the way in which they bully is notably different. Boys tend to use physical aggression, while girls use verbal tactics such as social exclusion and gossiping (Mooney et al.).

At the secondary level, from 10% (Siann et al., 1994) to 27% (Whitney & Smith, 1993) of British children sampled indicated that they had been bullied at some time during their school careers. As many as 75% of students in an American study responded that they had been bullied (Hazler, Hoover, & Oliver, 1992). An American survey of middle school students in Maryland found that 24% of sampled students admitted that they had bullied others at least once in the year prior to the study, and 7% admitted to bullying others three or more times. In this study 30% said that they had been victimized three or more times during the previous year (Haynie et al., 2001). A nation-wide American study indicated that 8.8% of 6th through 10th grade students bully others at least weekly, and 8.5% report that they were bullied at least once a week (Nansel et al., 2001).

There is conflicting information regarding bullying rates as children age. Some evidence indicates that students are less likely to be victimized in their last years of high school, perhaps because older students are no longer present to torment them (Nolin, Davies, & Chandler, 1996). Nansel et al. (2001) found that bullying rates among American students were higher in middle school than in high school. In contrast, Whitney and Smith (1993) found that bullying does not abate with age. In an American study, Shakeshaft, et al. (1995) found that high school bullying was likely to be verbal rather than physical. Gay and lesbian students were the exception in this study; they reported that both physical aggression and verbal harassment continued throughout high school.

Gender differences identified at the elementary level carried through into high school, with boys using more physical aggression (Hoover, et al., 1992; Whitney & Smith, 1993), while girls were more likely to talk about others behind their backs (Shakeshaft et al., 1995). Nansel et al. (2001) found that secondary school boys used both physical and verbal bullying, while girls used verbal bullying, such as taunting, sexual comments, and rumors. In general, boys were found to bully boys, and girls were found to bully girls; but some boys crossed gender lines and also bullied girls. Little difference was found in the frequency of victimization of boys and girls (Whitney & Smith, 1993). The reasons that secondary students were bullied also varied by gender. Girls were more likely to be victimized because of their looks or clothing. Both boys and girls tormented girls who were sexually

mature with rumors of sexual behavior or sexual comments. Boys, on the other hand, were harassed more for their behavior; they were often teased with accusations of being homosexual (Shakeshaft et al., 1995).

Bullies

It is not known what actually causes a student to bully others. Several researchers, however, have identified relationships between bullying behavior and other personal characteristics. Bullies tended to have an aggressive personality pattern with weak inhibitions against physical behavior, had a positive attitude towards the use of violence (Horne & Socherman, 1996), were physically stronger than other students, and desired to dominate others (Olweus, 1995). They were more likely to lack sensitivity to the feelings of others, to be hyperactive, to have lower academic achievement, and to have more personality problems than victims or students who were not involved in bullying (Lowenstein, 1995a). Bullies were found to have more behavior problems; greater acceptance of deviant behavior; and lower rates of self-control, social competence, and school adjustment than either victims or a comparison group of students who had not been bullied or victimized (Haynie et al., 2001).

The families of bullying students have been found to differ from those of non-bullying students. The socio-economic status of bullies' families is lower than for families of other children (Schwartz, Dodge, Pettit, & Bates, 1997). Bullies were found to have witnessed more violence at home than others in a study of Maryland middle school students. Children who bully also had significantly lower parental involvement and support than victims or students not involved in bullying (Haynie et al., 2001).

Bullying has been correlated significantly with delinquency in an Australian study of high school students (Rigby & Cox, 1996) and with depression in a British study of elementary students (Austin & Joseph, 1996). Children who bully are five times more likely to have criminal records when they become adults than non-bullies (Oliver, Oaks, & Hoover, 1994).

Victims

A study of bullying conducted in Norway with elementary and junior high students indicated that victims were commonly physically weaker than bullies and somehow gave the impression that they would not retaliate if attacked (Olweus, 1991). Another study conducted in Great Britain indicated that 8- to 11-year-old victims tended to have lower self-esteem and higher rates of depression and introversion than other students (Austin & Joseph, 1996). Victims also were more likely to be sensitive, anxious, and insecure than other students (Olweus, 1995). Bullies tended to select students as victims who had higher rates of learning disabilities and clumsiness than others (Lowenstein, 1995b). In other words, victims were quiet, physically weaker students, who were perceived as inept by bullying students and were targeted because they rarely fought back. Although victims' families have been characterized in the literature as being too close or overprotective (Oliver et al., 1994), Schwartz et al. (1997) found no differences in the families of victimized students and those of non-bullied students in terms of discipline, child abuse, or parents' marital conflict.

In an American study of secondary students, victims indicated that they responded to being bullied with a variety of strategies. They sometimes rationalized the abuse by excusing it or dismissed it as joking. They ignored the bullying (and were often advised to do so by adults). Some fought back; some sought refuge in a group. Other victims withdrew from school activities in an effort to avoid being bullied. All of the victims who were studied indicated that they felt badly about themselves (Shakeshaft et al., 1995). Only about half of all bullied students in a British study of secondary students said that they had told someone about the victimization (Whitney & Smith, 1993). A sample of elementary-level American students reported that they were reluctant to report bullying out of fear of retaliation from the intimidator (Roberts & Coursol, 1996).

Bully/Victims

Bullying and victimization are not necessarily opposing behaviors, because some children both bully and are mistreated by others (Haynie et al., 2001). One British study of junior high students found that bully/victims accounted for 62% of all bullies. Another study conducted with American elementary school children identified

48% of all bullies as aggressive victims (Schwarz et al., 1997). A study of Maryland middle-school students indicated that 53% of the students who reported they had bullied also reported frequent victimization (Haynie et al., 2001). Bully/victims appeared to have more problems than non-victimized bullies, victims, and children not involved in bullying. They also were more likely to be neurotic and psychotic than their peers (Mynard & Joseph, 1997; Schwartz et al., 1997). Bully/victims were more likely to have school behavior problems, to accept deviant behavior, and to be depressed than non-victimized bullies, victims, or a comparison group. These bully/victims had lowered self-control and poorer social competence and school adjustment than the other two groups (Haynie, 2001). Victimized aggressors were more likely to be rejected by parents than other children (including other bullies). These children had more violent role models, viewed more parental aggression and marital violence, and were exposed to more maternal hostility. They also were more likely to have been physically abused than other students (Schwartz et al., 1997). Bully/victims perceived their parents to be less involved and less supportive than other students in the study (Haynie, 2001).

School Responses

Students who have been bullied believe that teachers and staff do not respond to bullying when they see it (Hazler et al., 1992; Roberts & Coursol, 1996). British students reported that when they make adults aware of bullying, the adults only intervened half of the time in elementary school and a third of the time in high school (Whitney & Smith, 1993). In an observation study in a Canadian elementary school, teachers dealt with only 37% of the bullying behavior that took place in their presence (Atlas & Pepler, 1998). According to Barone (1997), teachers and staff tolerate bullying for four reasons:

1. Adults are unaware of most of the bullying that goes on in schools. In one American study, teachers believed that 16% of their students were being bullied, while students in the same school reported that 59% of the students were bullied (Barone, 1997). Atlas and Pepler (1998) found that student bullying takes place in classrooms when teachers are present, but the bullying is brief and covert, so teachers were only aware of half of the bullying that took place when they were in close proximity. Teachers also were unaware of the location of

bullying in their schools, believing that it took place out of sight on playgrounds. Students, in contrast, reported that bullying happened in hallways, where teachers could see it if they were attentive (Barone, 1997).

2. Teachers may believe that children need to learn to cope with bullying. Mooney et al. (1991) suggest that adults view teasing as being so common that children simply must learn to deal with it. Adults, therefore, are reluctant to intervene. Although many adults believe that bullying and being bullied are normal childhood activities, bullying is not a necessary part of growing up or a rite of passage (Barone, 1997). Unfortunately, such lack of intervention that targets bullying behavior "implies a tacit acceptance" of the behavior by teachers (Olweus, 1991, p. 427).
3. Adults do not always perceive or identify bullying that they witness. What may look like accidental pushing may actually be bullying (Barone, 1997). In fact, one study in an American high school indicated that teachers sometimes join in with students in harassing others or encourage such torment (Shakeshaft et al., 1995).
4. Teachers lack resources for dealing with bullying. School employees have been asked to deal with many issues for which they have not been trained. They may ignore bullying, because they do not know how to respond (Barone, 1997).

While there are a number of reasons that school employees fail to intervene to stop bullying, students perceive one major reason for adult inaction. Students believe that adults do not care enough to get involved (Hazler et al., 1992; Shakeshaft et al., 1995).

Peer Responses to Bullying

Peers are present in 85% of bullying incidents (Atlas & Pepler, 1998). Classmate reactions to bullying of others include offering assistance to the bully, reinforcing the behavior (by inciting or laughing), staying away and not taking sides, or helping/defending the victim. Peers are sometimes reluctant to offer help to victims, because they do not know how to respond. These students also worry that if they intervene to help the victim, they will draw the attention of the bully and become victims themselves. In one survey, one-third of the students surveyed felt that they ought to try to help a victim (Stevens, Van Oost, & de Bourdeaudhui, 2000). In another study, only 17% of

sixth graders and 19% of eighth graders reported that they actually tried to help (Salmivalli, 1999). Helping peers to respond appropriately is essential to decreasing bullying in schools (Atlas & Pepler, 1998; Garrity, Jens, Porter, Sager, & Short-Camilli, 2000; Salmivalli, 1999; Stevens et al.).

Strategies to Reduce Bullying

A holistic approach is needed to address the problem of bullying (Arora, 1994; Garrity et al., 2000; Nansel et al., 2001). All school staff (including playground and lunch monitors), students (to the extent that they are able), and parents should be involved (Atlas & Pepler, 1998; Hazler et al., 1992; Garrity et al., 2000; Saunders, 1997) in helping a school reduce bullying. The inclusion of staff as well as parent and student involvement in the development of a bully prevention program increases ownership of and investment in the new policies (Barone, 1997).

The eco-systems perspective suggests that addressing concerns about bullying will be most effective if the entire school can be involved. Therefore, it would help if many of the following strategies can be implemented in all classrooms and be supported by administration and reinforced by school staff throughout the school day. The systems perspective suggests, however, that changes in one subsystem can carry over and promote change in the wider system. Consequently, a small change, for example, in one classroom, should also affect rest of the school. So, while the following strategies are suggested for entire schools, they can be implemented in single classrooms as well.

A common early strategy is to begin with a needs assessment in which students, teachers, and parents are surveyed to determine the rate of bullying and the extent of the problem (Greenbaum, 1987; Hazler et al., 1992). Not only can this serve to alert school staff to the extent of bullying, it can also provide a baseline to determine the effectiveness of the intervention strategy. Implementing a bullying-prevention program also should include development of bully reporting forms (Saunders, 1997) or some other systematic strategy to record bullying behavior, such that the school can monitor all bullying activity and keep records of inappropriate student behavior (Greenbaum, 1987).

Bullying can be viewed as a warning sign of problems in the school climate. Schools need to determine ways that they can increase tolerance, improve faculty-student relationships, increase student

ownership of the school (Litke, 1996; Olweus, 1991), and create more opportunities for student leadership. Strategies for supporting a positive climate include setting clear expectations for student behavior, teaching students non-violent behaviors, reinforcing positive behavior when it occurs, rewarding cooperation, encouraging students to find ways to be kind and compassionate, helping students identify alternatives to violence, teaching friendship skills, helping students learn conflict-resolution skills, encouraging students to affirm each other (Beane, 1999), encouraging students to value and affirm differences, role playing problem solving (Teaching Tolerance Project, 1997), encouraging students to understand other students, helping students to accept different perspectives (Hazler et al., 1992), encouraging respect for others, helping students to notice and reach out to left-out students (Garrity et al., 2000; Olweus, 1991), and using cooperative learning groups (Margolin, 2001).

Policy Development

Schools that wish to reduce bullying should begin by bringing bullying into the open by articulating and publishing a definition of bullying (Hazler et al., 1992; Horne & Socherman, 1996). Talking openly about bullying removes the taboos that may prevent students from reporting it (Saunders, 1997). Defining bullying to include both physical and verbal aggression can create common understanding of what bullying is, while helping students understand that they should not have to endure such behavior.

Safety should be a part of the school mission and values (Litke, 1996), so schools need to take a stand against bullying and adopt a policy for dealing with it (Hazler et al., 1992; Litke, 1996; Saunders, 1997). Teachers and staff never should overlook abusive acts (Hazler et al., 1992; Saunders, 1997), as bullies and victims alike interpret this non-action as tacit support of bullying. Anti-bullying policies should include clear, consistent (Garrity et al., 2000; Horne & Socherman, 1996; Olweus, 1991), no-nonsense, factual, non-punitive consequences (Arora, 1994; (Horne & Socherman, 1996; Olweus, 1991) that avoid shaming the student who has bullied (Garrity et al., 2000). Beane (1999) notes that consequences need to be practical, logical, reasonable, fair, inevitable, predictable, immediate, consistent, developmentally appropriate and should escalate if the negative behavior continues. Simply giving bullies a warning or a second chance does not contribute to a safe school for the victims (Litke).

Consequences for bullying include reprimanding the bully, reporting bullying to parents/guardians, requiring an apology, insisting the bully make amends, and timing students out. More severe strategies are in-school detention, dismissal, suspension, and expulsion (Beane). Students can be involved, to the extent that they are developmentally able, in the development of both an honor policy that addresses sanctions against bullying (Horne & Socherman) and a student code of conduct to discourage aggression (Hazler et al.).

School administrators should inform the families of students who bully about their son's or daughter's unacceptable behavior (Saunders, 1997) and the negative short- and long-term consequences (to both bully and victim). School social workers should provide parents with information about bullying, strategies to intervene, and counseling referrals to help their at-risk children reduce aggression. Parents of victims need to be informed as well, so that they can provide support (Greenbaum, 1987).

For student misbehavior to be stopped, recesses and hallways need to be monitored (Lowenstein, 1995a; Olweus, 1991; Roberts & Coursol, 1996). In fact, schools with adequate playground and hallway supervision have been shown to have fewer incidents of bullying (Greenbaum, 1987; Horne & Socherman, 1996; Whitney & Smith, 1993). Students who have been identified as either bullies or victims should be observed even more carefully to prevent future incidents of bullying (Olweus, 1991). Saunders (1997) suggests that playground supervisors [and bus drivers and lunch monitors] also need to be involved in discussions about bullying, so as to alert them to the problem.

Classroom Strategies

Classroom teachers are key to school efforts to reduce bullying. They need to be alert to covert bullying and hold bullies accountable for their behavior. Teacher awareness and a desire to create a positive environment for students can lead to an atmosphere in which caring is the norm and bullying is not tolerated (Beane, 1999). Informed teachers can teach students about bullying by defining it, discussing the problem directly, and allowing students to brainstorm solutions. Teaching students strategies to avoid or defuse bullying is invaluable, as is encouraging students to inform adults appropriately when they know of bullying behavior (Garrity, et al., 2000). Helping students role-play ways to respond to bullying is particularly helpful

(Stevens et al., 2000). Teachers also can address bullying indirectly by assigning and discussing readings about bullying or by creating writing assignments of students' own experiences. History and current events also provide rich opportunities for discussions about bullying (Saunders, 1997).

Involving Student Witnesses

Non-involved students, who neither bully nor are bullied, can discourage school-based bullying that they witness (Salmivalli, 1999). Stevens et al. (2000) recommends discussion and role-playing to help peers develop and rehearse ways to intervene when someone is being victimized. Garrity et al. (2000) discuss the importance of mobilizing this "caring majority" to include others in their activities and particularly to be sensitive to the needs of those who are likely to be victimized. These students can learn the difference between tattling and appropriate help seeking from adults when they witness bullying. Stevens et al. (2000) note that the ways peers handle bullying changes developmentally, with younger children learning to seek appropriate adult help and adolescents more likely to intervene directly with aggressive students.

Including parents

Parents of victimized students can help by asking their children if someone is bothering them at school, coaching them in assertiveness skills, and instructing their children not to hit back or retaliate, which often makes things worse for the victim (Saunders, 1997). Parents who are sympathetic listeners are most helpful. Withdrawing the student or allowing him or her to stay home interferes with student learning and does not resolve the problem (Roberts & Coursol, 1996), as victims, without intervention, tend to tend to be re-victimized in a new environment (Salmivalli, 1999). Parents of bullies should communicate to their offspring that they do not condone aggression (Horne & Socherman, 1996).

Helping Victims and Bullies

Victims need protection from bullies and support from school staff (Garrity et al., 2000; Greenbaum, 1987). When an incident of bullying happens, adults should respond immediately to victims and allow them to tell their stories. Victims also benefit from ongoing support (Roberts & Coursol, 1996) and a special adult or older student who can act as a mentor. Formal programs such as school-based individual and group counseling can help teach assertiveness, social skills, staying near others, problem solving, and friendship building and can foster self-esteem (Garrity et al., 2000; Roberts & Coursol, 1996). Counseling can help bullies build empathy skills and correct thinking errors, such as the assumption that the student should always get what he or she wishes (Garrity et al., 2000).

Successful Anti-Bullying Programs

Garrity et al. (2000) developed "Bully-Proofing" to prevent and reduce bullying at the elementary level. This program begins by informing parents and teachers about the nature of bullying and teaching school staff strategies to intervene. Three rules are adopted for the school: 1) no bullying is allowed; 2) students help others by speaking out and seeking help; and 3) students include everyone. The classroom teacher (and/or the school social worker) teaches six classroom lessons to every student in the school. Students learn examples of bullying, zero tolerance for such aggression, strategies for victims, and suggestions for witnesses. Parents are informed and involved in supporting their sons and daughters. In-school counseling is provided for both bullies and victims to help them gain needed social skills (e.g., empathy and delay of gratification for bullies, avoiding isolated situations, and problem solving for victims). This program has been shown to reduce the number of discipline issues and to help some bullies become positive leaders.

Olweus (1991, 1993) developed and tested a school-based bullying reduction program for slightly older children (grades 4-7) in Sweden and Norway. This program begins with the education of teachers (e.g., inservice training and information booklets) and parents, who are given an information packet about the goals and strategies to be used in the program. Adult supervision of students is increased, and

teachers intervene when they see bullying, giving students a clear message that bullying is not acceptable. Frequent classroom discussions ("social hour") are used to talk about rules, helping others, and including left-out students. "Non-hostile, non-physical punishments" (Olweus, 1991, p. 445) are used when bullying occurs, and praise is given when students follow the rules. Teachers help victims learn to be assertive and find creative ways to make victims appear valuable in the eyes of their classmates. Parents of victims are encouraged to help their offspring increase peer contacts and make and keep friends. This program was found to reduce bullying within 8 months and showed marked results in 2 years (Olweus, 1991).

Lowenstein (1995a) developed an intense therapeutic intervention for emotionally disturbed students, aged 10-16 in England. This program relied heavily on building a positive relationship between staff and students. It included close supervision, group therapy (including feedback and confrontation by group members regarding inappropriate behavior), sensitivity training, role-playing, drama therapy, and social skills training for both bullies and victims. The program also used a pair therapy that brought bully and victim together to work on tasks that required mutual problem solving. Both bully and victim monitored their own behavior and reported their progress and setbacks to their therapy groups. Bullies and victims also engaged in individual therapy with the goal of learning insight into their own behavior. Outcomes were determined by student self-monitoring and independent observations. After 10 weeks of this intensive intervention, bullying ceased completely for 39 of the 50 subjects studied and was markedly reduced by 7 others.

Conclusion

Bullying in schools simply is not acceptable, because students deserve a safe school environment. Schools must intervene to stop this aggression. Children do not have the power to stop bullying with no help (Saunders, 1997), and, without intervention, bullies will not outgrow their offensive behavior (Olweus, 1991). Even though schools cannot control the amount of violence that their students face in their neighborhoods and homes, it is possible to create safe and bully-free environments at school (Garrity et al., 2000).

Because of their holistic person-in-environment approach and their knowledge of planned change, school social workers are logical candidates to implement and evaluate these bully-reduction programs

in schools. Administrators, teachers, school staff, parents, victims, and other students also need to be involved in creating policies that hold bullies accountable for their behavior. The major challenge is to find ways to create a positive school climate and create an atmosphere in which all students respect (and are respected by) each other and school staff. It probably will not be possible to eliminate all bullying activity. Nevertheless, schools owe it to their students to reduce bullying, so that students are not intimidated by threats of physical or emotional harm from their peers. Reducing bullying has many healthy side effects in a school. School social workers who work to create safe, bully-free schools can improve the mental health of students and of the adults these students will become.

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MENTORING AFRICAN AMERICAN MOTHERS AND THEIR DAUGHTERS FROM VIOLENT ENVIRONMENTS: AN APPROACH FOR ALTERNATIVE SCHOOLS

A. Leaveile Cox

ABSTRACT

A community services mentoring project designed for African American mothers and their adolescent daughters in a southern inner city school environment is examined for its usefulness in an alternative school. The aim of the project was to provide individual mentors for both the young mothers, ages ranging from 23 to 39, and separate mentors for their daughters, whose ages were from 13 to 17. The focus of this paper is to present the reality of the impact of the violent environment in which these mothers and their daughters live, the results of the mentoring project as an intervention, the unavoidable systemic barriers that often occur when working with schools, and to give implications for social work policy and practice in working with African American adolescent girls from single parent homes.

Violence: A Reality of the Environment

While writing this paper, the author became aware of the murder of a 35-year-old middle school teacher by a 13-year-old male youth in Florida. This adolescent, who killed one of his favorite teachers, was tried at age 14 as an adult and received a sentence of 28 years in prison (Pacenti, 2001; Pressley, 2001). Other killings in schools, such as the Columbine massacre featured in the April 21, 1999, edition of *The Atlanta Journal and Constitution* (Aucoin & Jubera, 1999), underscore the spread of violence to the larger community; thus, the entire nation has begun to suffer the devastating results. Violence and violent acts are perpetrated within households and have extended to schools, the streets, and to the larger community.

As a social phenomenon, violence is spreading rapidly to the schools; it is a social problem and one that has become a great concern to school personnel, social work practitioners, and many others who work with children and adolescents. The school personnel in this

southern, inner city, alternative school are aware of the negative results of violence. The Educare-Bridge Alternative School is made up of two individual programs. The Educare component provides alternative educational experiences for students who have exhibited disruptive behavior, truancy, alienation, and failure in the traditional school setting as demonstrated by long term suspensions, expulsion, etc. The Bridge school component is an alternative program for students who are involved with the juvenile justice system.

At the outset of the mentoring project for the mothers and their adolescent daughters, in 1996, the principal and school personnel were anxious and open to taking some preventative measures to include families in finding a solution to the problems with which they were faced. The adverse effects of violence were paramount in and around the surrounding neighborhoods near the alternative school, where the current project was carried out. Not far from the location of the school, three female teenagers, one African American, and three Caucasians, had been recommended by a jury to die by lethal injection and/or life in prison for the brutal slaying of another 18-year-old female (Davis, 1997). The three teenagers were given life sentences in prison. This incident, and the killing of students and teachers in Jonesboro, Arkansas, and the Columbine massacre, are indicative of the rampant spread of violence in American schools.

Although historically it has not been the trend for girls to enter the juvenile justice system as rapidly as their male counterparts, in recent years this trend has changed dramatically. According to Potter (1999), the current statistics for girls overall that have been arrested for juvenile offenses increased by 106% in1996 from 1989; girls represented 26% of all juveniles arrested in 1996. Between 1992 and 1996, the number of girls arrested for violent crimes rose by 25%, while boys' arrests remained constant. Although violent crimes have decreased overall by 23% from 1994-1997, this is not true for female violence. Between 1987 and 1996, the overall arrest rate for girls for violent crimes was 111% as compared to 63% for boys; the decrease for girls was much smaller (12% compared to 23%).

Much of this violent crime for girls was related to aggravated assault. This steady increase in violent crimes by girls was observed by the principal at the Educare Bridge Alternative school. Moreover, there appears to be a steady increase in violent crimes among African American women that may have gone unnoticed. This may be due to the media's tendency to focus on violent crimes committed by African American males rather than females. Featured are the large number of African American males who are involved in violent crimes, such as

drive by shootings, gang fights, and drug-related street activities. Staggering numbers of males are imprisoned for violent crimes. As a result, the day to day violence experienced by children and mothers in African American homes may not be given similar nor adequate coverage.

The horrifying traumatic effects on large numbers of children who witness violence in the home by one parent on another is well documented, especially when it involves the child witnessing the murder of one of his/her parents. For example, Pynoos and Eth (1984) noted that in Los Angeles County alone, the sheriff's homicide division estimated that about 200 children witnessed the violent death of one parent by another. Spaccarelli, Sandler, and Roosa (1994) found that violence accounted for significant variance in girls' self-reports of conduct problems in the schools.

Other factors that may have contributed to violence included low socioeconomic status, history of parental drinking, parental divorce, child abuse or neglect, child foster placement, and parental incarceration. Many African American families who live in the inner cities are victims of these types of environmental stresses. These families may experience daily the violent encounters between their parents and other family members. In the families' attempt to cope with such chaotic conditions, this constant disruption within the household, for many, becomes the norm (Cox, 1994). As Hampton and Gelles (1994) reported, there is limited knowledge about family violence in the homes of families of color. It should be noted that the few systematic studies of family violence based on representative sampling of a single city or state do not include a sufficient sample size for fair analysis. The insufficient samples, viewed at face value, would emphasize negative perceptions of African American families. In addition, Hampton and Gelles (1994) noted that many researchers are not interested in studying any aspect of non-majority family life.

Peled and Davis (1995) examined the prevalence and risk factors for violence in a representative sample of African American families of three types of family violence, i.e. husband to wife, wife to husband, and parent to child violence, and compared rates of husband to wife violence in African American and Caucasian families. They found that African American wives were 1 to 23 times more likely to experience minor violence and more than twice as likely to experience severe violence in the union. Couples under the age of 30 were found to have higher rates of violence, while families in lower socioeconomic groups have higher rates of wife battery than upper income families. In addition, African American respondents, who were hit by their mothers

as teenagers or who observed parental violence, had statistically significant higher rates of husband to wife violence. Peled and Davis also described the experience of children who have witnessed their mothers being violently abused or battered and suggested that these children are at risk for psychological abuse.

Need for Intervention

In family environments as those discussed above, inconsistent parental supervision of children, harsh punishment, failure to set limits, neglecting to reward pro-social behavior, coupled with coercive styles of parent child interaction and environmental stresses all tend to "wear parents out." Strategies for intervention, therefore, should focus on providing opportunities for children to build attachments with pro-social peers and adults (Fraser, 1996). Moreover, neighborhood-based services should include after-school mentoring, tutoring, and apprenticeship programs for middle and high school youths that build bonds of attachment with adults who are committed to conventional lines of action, that strengthen youths' vocational interests and skills, and that reinforce commitment to nonviolent social goals. For example, support of community programs that build attachments to nurturing adults and peers by creating opportunities to help impoverished, and often younger youths, can be effective interventions. As a result of such opportunities, positive effects on children's self esteem, success in school, and behavior may result.

Much of the literature reviewed described the positive effects of mentoring programs such as intervention for pregnant teens in building self esteem, problem solving, developing relationships, and future planning for employment (Zippay, 1995). Leadbeater & Way (1996) noted that mentoring programs promote identity development and parent and peer relationships for urban girls and alcohol prevention (Rhodes, Gingiss, & Smith, 1994). Other writers refer to the need for more outcome and empirical studies of mentoring programs to justify their positive influence (Rhodes, 1994; Roberts & Cotton, 1994).

The Alternative School Population

The school in which this intervention occurred is located in a low income project housing area in the inner city surrounded by a community known for a high level of drug activity and crime. This confined middle/high school is designated to receive students that have broken the student code of conduct in the local public schools and students from the juvenile centers that have a criminal record and have completed serving their sentences. Both groups of adolescent boys and girls are required to attend the alternative school as a bridge placement to returning to their former schools. Currently, these youths serve 9 week and some semester intervals at the alternative school. They often are several grade levels behind in their academic work. Although many possess notable potential and intellect, they previously have been labeled as troublemakers or throwaways and often act out these self-fulfilling prophecies. The principal and faculty of the alternative school offer a safe haven and nurturing environment for the students by promoting a family environment.

The alternative school separates the adolescents into two groups. The first group consists of students that are referred from the local public schools and is designated as The Educare Program. The second group comes from the juvenile centers and is labeled The Bridge Program. Although both groups are separated, they may participate in some joint group activities.

From 1994-1996, referrals for violent acts perpetrated by adolescent girls from the area schools had risen from 55 girls to 67 and accounted for 37% of the population in the student group from the local public schools. Girls from the juvenile centers made a dramatic jump from 1 girl in 1994/95 to 11 girls in 1996/97, accounting for 10% of this group population in this 2-year period. This disturbing trend was the beginning of a search for an intervention by the principal and school personnel in order to positively impact the family system in an attempt to decrease violence within the school. It was not surprising that the principal was amenable to the use of mentors as an intervention to address the effect of family violence problems that was now spreading within the school. The girls, whose parents were mostly single parents, were also bringing mother-daughter relational problems to the school. These problems were often violence-related.

Many inner city African American families are headed by one parent, usually the mother. These young women may become victims of violence as well as perpetrators in the home and the community.

Garrett (1995) suggested that African American single mothers, whose daughters join gangs, often deny the significance of violence. Subsequently, this growing, but often ignored family group, may experience violence daily. Among this family group, it has already been noted that the number of young African American women who are incarcerated for violent crimes has risen dramatically. It is the experience of this author that a typical home may consist of a 28-year-old mother (who may also be a grandmother) and a 14-year-old adolescent girl, with two or three younger siblings. In the alternative school, the number of adolescent girls and their mothers were becoming a target group for concern. The girls' ages ranged from 11 to 17, while their mothers' ages ranged from 23 to 39.

Natural Mentors for African American Daughters and Their Mothers

The idea of mentoring is not a new idea. Mentoring has been a useful intervention in management, colleges, and universities and has been identified as an effective process for the mentee in insuring his/her success (Valeau,1999). Corporate mentoring programs have aided African American professionals in developing into successful managers (Serant 1991). In some schools, mentoring programs have been reported to have made a difference in improving and motivating students for improvement in academics ("Mentors Fight," 1996) (Croal, 1998). Also, effective mentoring programs have been documented for African American males in the juvenile system (Howard, 1996). Natural mentors have been known to contribute positively to the psychosocial growth, development, and adjustment of youth.

Research has indicated that African American and Asian girls, specifically, suffer from a shortage of role models and often have insufficient career advice. Thus, mentoring programs have been found to benefit Asian girls in Shefield, England (Stevens,1997). Werner and Smith (1982) found the presence of a supportive adult to be an important protective factor among low income minority youth. Rhodes, Contreras, and Manglesdorf (1994), examining natural mentor relationships among 534 Latina adolescent mothers, supported the premise that these inner city youth reported significantly lower levels of depression than those without mentors. Rhodes, Ebert, and Fischer (1992) explored the characteristics and supported the functions of

natural mentors of 129 young, low income African American mothers. They found that women with mentors reported lower levels of depression, may be helped to make better use of their networks, and that mentoring may serve as a buffer against negative effects of relationship problems. Waller, Brown, and Whittle (1999) indicated, from their work with teen mothers and their children, that the utilization of community volunteers for mentors for teenage mothers is cost effective, can benefit communities, and can promote positive outcomes for at risk pregnant mothers. Withey and Anderson (1980) also identified the mentoring relationship between volunteers and abusive parents as a reciprocal relationship that meets both developmental needs of volunteers as well as promotes change in the parents.

Cox (1994), in a qualitative study of successful and resilient African American women and men from violent environments, found that both the mens' and womens' relationship with a mentor, particularly during adolescent years, was a factor in their resilience and motivation to overcome violent or adverse circumstances. Gilligan (1999) also underscored the opportunities to enhance resilience in school-based prevention programs by forming positive relationships with mentors. Research also suggests that, for at risk teens, specifically African Americans, there are some benefits derived from mentoring, in spite of difficulties in documenting its effectiveness (Royse, 1998). Furthermore, it is the author's opinion that mentors may provide relationships that both mothers and daughters have missed in their early developmental years. The author was unable to find studies that specifically discuss the need for mentoring programs for both single mothers of color and their adolescent daughters. This is the group to which this mentoring project for African American mothers and their adolescent daughters focused its attention.

Developmental Theory

Object relations theorists have documented the importance of psychological and physical connectedness and later distancing and separation that take place between mothers and their infants during the first 3 years of life. Mahler, Pine, and Bergman (1975) and Edward, Ruskin, and Turrini (1981) have pointed to the life long endeavor process of the consolidation of self and the notion of parenthood being a developmental phase in the life cycle. Developmental theorists have

indicated that it is usually acceptable to recognize that one of the major tasks of adolescence is to separate from parents. Mirkin (1994) has challenged a number of the terms that normally are accepted to describe this developmental phase for adolescents, i.e., "separation and individuation," "autonomy," "break away," which conceivably bear positive connotations. On the other hand, Mirkin has pointed out that words like dependence, fusion, and enmeshment present negative connotations and that these latter words also imply that separation is valued and connectedness is not. This message often is given to adolescent girls and their mothers, when well meaning practitioners work with them.

More recent research by Garrett (1995) includes focus on identity development, racism, and peer and parent relationships. Leadbetter (1996) focuses on the unique identity issues that structure developmental tasks for African American female adolescents. He found that African American adolescents experience relational crises in both racial, expressionistic, and assertive styles of relating to or negotiating a perceived hostile environment. Likewise, Way (1995), exploring 12 poor, urban working-class adolescents about their relationships, themselves, and their school over a 3-year period, noted that the over-riding theme for the girls was the ability to be outspoken or "to speak one's mind" (pp.113-119). These outspoken voices were focused on being able to express one's anger and disagreements in relationships as well as voicing care and connection.

The African American adolescents at the aforementioned alternative school all appeared not to have attained a positive connection with their mothers early in life and were currently totally disconnected physically, emotionally, and psychologically. The mentoring intervention was to provide an environment that would compensate for those missed early developmental needs. Through the mentoring experiences and activities, mothers and daughters would have opportunities to connect and develop relationships with empathic people. Validation of the girls' and their mothers' need for connection, in spite of their violent acting out behaviors and distorted mother/daughter relationships, was an impetus for the mentoring project.

The Mentoring Project

The mentoring project was developed as a result of the concern expressed by the principal and the guidance counselor. The principal recognized that the enrollment of girls in The Educare and The Bridge programs had more than doubled over a 2-year period. This increased growth was attributed to varied factors, but the most prominent and consistent one, according to the principal, was that "these violent females bring their violent behaviors inside the [alternative school]. The school needs assistance in working with the female population." His reception to the idea of persons such as mentors set the stage for collaborative planning by school personnel and the author, as the representative community services associate from Virginia Commonwealth University.

This project lasted for 1 school year, with the school being a receptive community agency and with the author as the consultant and assistant to the identified project and agency personnel. The principal was the key person in identifying the need and saw the role of the mentor as someone who would share in solving of conflicts, be a role model, and be able to dialogue with the girls. The idea of also working with the girls' mothers and having individual mentors for them readily was accepted. This entire effort was considered to be a good outreach effort into the community, especially because of the young ages of most of the mothers and their single parent status. The project was viewed by the Educare/Bridge school personnel as an important need in the community and at the same time offered the opportunity for Virginia Commonwealth University students to be involved in collaborative effort.

The middle and high school aged girls who participated in the project live in stressful and violent communities, having been suspended and/or expelled from their former school because of one or more violent acts. Violence within the homes and in the community created strained relationships between the mothers and the daughters. These violence related problems further intensified in the Educare/Bridge Alternative school in both of the programs that involved students who had been suspended or expelled from their regular schools for breaking the student code of conduct, as well as those from the juvenile centers.

The mentoring project consisted of seven girls and their mothers, all of whom are members of single parent families. The mothers ranged in ages from 23 to 39. Five of the daughters were 13 or

14 years of age, one was 15 years old, and one was 17 years old . The project was described to the girls and mothers by the guidance counselor at the intake process of the program, and both mother and daughter volunteered to be a part of the program and signed a contract (see Appendix A). All of the mothers reported that they were experiencing problems in parenting, said they no longer had any control over their daughters, and were experiencing severe mother-daughter relationship problems within the home. Although the adolescent girls who attend this alternative program are mandated either by their school system or the juvenile agency to attend because of some precipitating violent act that caused them to be suspended from the school system or because this was a requirement of the juvenile center to return to their former regular school setting, they all were given an option of choosing to be a part of the mentoring project. Even though the mothers volunteered for the program, they appeared to be somewhat skeptical of a mentor who might have been her same age. Yet, these mothers, overwhelmed by the violence and the economic conditions of their environment, were coming to the school and seeking assistance with the serious violent situations that they were having in the home and in the community. They appeared powerless to manage their children. Except for one mother, who had a job driving the school bus, and one, who worked as a secretary at an agency, the five other mothers were welfare recipients.

Mothers and girls were interviewed by the guidance counselor, who played a major role in the entire program. The seven girls in this project were referred to the alternative program for some act of violence that they had committed in their schools. These acts ranged from carrying a weapon, gun, or knife; threatening or assaulting a teacher, to actual harmful assault of a student, bus driver, or security guard. Other problems faced by these mothers and reported by them included their daughters' running away from home, staying out all night, inability of mother to discipline or to provide limits, and in several instances non-motivation of their daughters to attend school, as well as feelings of low self esteem. Lack of parental control and supervision were major problems in almost all cases.

The primary goals of the project were as follows:

- to provide a support mechanism for both mothers and daughters as they struggle with violence in their lives and in their communities;
- to motivate mothers and daughters wherein their self-esteem will become positive;

- to promote the development of healthy role models for both mothers and daughters; and
- to decrease the violence in the home, school, and community.

The time frame that was set for the project was 1 school year, beginning in August 1996, and extending through June 1997. The unique part of the project was that both mothers and daughters would have their own individual mentor. After interviewing these young mothers, it became apparent that they, like their own adolescent daughters, had not connected to their mothers early in life and felt that they had been abandoned. The mentoring project was geared towards connectedness for both mother and daughter with an empathic mentor.

The Mentors

The mentors were found through advertising (churches, fliers, (see Appendix B), and by word of mouth). Two of the mentors were graduate students from Virginia Commonwealth University. One was a Ph.D. student, one an undergraduate student, one a security guard, one a nurse, and one a computer technician. Two were married. The other five were single. All of the mentors were female and in their early 20s, except two, who were married in their mid-40s. Except for the one undergraduate student, this was the first time that these students had performed as mentors.

Training sessions were conducted for the mentors by the community services associate, [the author] a social worker, and the guidance counselor. Three initial meetings were held for training. The sessions were held at the school, and the mentors were able to meet their prospective mentee informally at the third meeting. The first meeting was designed to introduce the mentors to the mentoring needs of the children and their parents. Information that was shared involved the preparation of the mentees for acceptance into the neighborhoods by the children and parents and familiarization with the goals of the program. It was necessary to review information regarding self-esteem building activities, relationship building activities, and how to provide a nurturing environment (see Appendix C). Meetings were held monthly for the mentors as a group. Mentors were advised to call or to meet in between with the guidance counselor of the school or the community services associate. Monthly meetings consisted of mentors reporting

about their activities with their mentees, supervision and support for mentors, and role playing activities to assist mentors in relationship building. These meetings were held at the school. The principal attended some of the meetings, but the primary persons in these meetings were the guidance counselor and the community services associate. The program was designed to have group meetings with the mothers as well as with the girls, and a final meeting with all participants, which included the mentors, mentees, and school personnel.

The mentors were willing and committed to their roles. Mentors were asked to look for strengths in their mentees and attempt to build on the strengths. It was apparent that there were many marked negatives in the girls' and mothers' lives. This strengths approach lended itself to relationship development and the mentees becoming aware of their hidden talents and abilities. The mentors were encouraged to engage in specific activities that were designed to develop a connecting bond with the adolescent girls. Such activities as attending church together, going to a movie or play, going shopping, going to the library, playing games such as scrabble, going to the park, and walking together tended to achieve this purpose. In several instances, one mentor (one of the married mentors) took her girl home for a weekend, with the mother's permission. More importantly, all of the mentees discovered that they could now talk to someone who felt that they were valuable as human beings. Being there to listen was a significant activity of the mentors in the project. The mentors not only saw their girls or mothers weekly, but they also intermittently called and chatted by phone with them. Homework concerns were discussed. Boy and girl relationships were discussed. It was during one such discussion or talk that one mentor discovered that one 14-year-old mentee also had a baby. Prior to this relationship, the baby was thought to have been her older sister's child.

The mentoring program formally ended at the end of the school year. All of the students returned to their regular schools. The mentors and the mentees maintained their relationship through the end of the school year, which ended in June 1997 (see Appendix D).

Roles of the Guidance Counselor and Community Services Associate

The guidance counselor played a significant role in the project, as she was the gatekeeper that was stationed daily at the school and was able to see the girls regularly for counseling as well. She was also the primary mentor for the mothers, who made a very positive connection with her, and a co-facilitator of the meetings with the community services associate. As the community services associate, I worked collaboratively together with the guidance counselor in individual planning meetings prior to, during, and after the program ended. Intermittent meetings also were planned with the principal, who was the overseer of the program. The girls met weekly in a group with two trained professionals–a social worker, who had been assigned to the school to run groups for another program, and the guidance counselor. The mentees were given task assignments that were discussed the following week in group settings. A task might be to spend 5 minutes talking to Mom about your day. They then would come back to the group and discuss and role play.

Obstacles to Successful Outcome

First, the original work plan was designed to involve the mothers with their own individual mentor, and these mothers were receptive to the idea. This was the most difficult part of the mentoring program. By allowing the mentors to choose their options for work with a girl or mother, most tended to feel that the daughters were more needy and chose to work with one of the adolescent girls rather than the mothers. The mentors, except for two, were younger than the mothers. This appeared to be a barrier to facilitating a point of connection. Two mentors, however, were able to make a connection with two mothers. Because of the limitation of age-appropriate mentors for the mothers, five mothers ended up meeting weekly and sometimes bi-weekly with the guidance counselor, who was experienced and mature. The originally planned group meetings for the mothers were not carried out because of scheduling problems and also because the mothers were already being seen once or twice weekly by the guidance counselor.

Secondly, at the time that the project was launched, one of the participants in the project returned to her regular school at the 9-week

interval. This was a significant barrier to the continuing development of ongoing relationships once the student left, even though the mentor continued with her through the entire school term. Thirdly, there was some concern about the safety of the mentors, who were going into neighborhoods where violence and drugs are rampant. These environmental conditions were discussed in meetings, and the problems were alleviated somewhat by the mentors picking up the girls at the school.

Other problems were posed when mentors went to pick up their mentees from the homes, and the girls were not always there. This perhaps would have been a much more successful project if the school social worker were to have been able to be involved in the team effort. The school social worker, a male, was so involved with working with groups of young African American males, field work, and attendance concerns, time was not available for this project. A social worker whose time would have been devoted only to this project might have facilitated the process of helping the mothers to obtain mentors, relieving the guidance counselor, and monitoring the progress and success of the entire project.

Results of Project

In spite of obvious obstacles, as noted above, there were numerous gains from the project. The most promising result of this project, from the principal's and guidance counselor's perspective, is that it pointed to the need for an ongoing mentoring program at alternative schools and for mentoring programs to become an integral part of the curriculum. This was indicated by both the principal, guidance counselor, and the teachers, who observed the changed behavior of the students involved in the project. It was notable that all of the adolescent girls who were participants in this project, except one, returned to their original school, and there have been no observed or reported violent episodes. Most of the daughters were able to connect and develop a positive relationship with their mentor and were able to talk about problems on a one to one basis.

Levels of trust between the girls and their mentors developed. The girls became friends with their mentors and were able to begin to work out some personal problems that were impeding their progress. For example, the 14-year-old girl who had a baby but denied that she

was the mother was later able to discuss openly with her mentor her fear of parenting and that she was indeed the mother. Several mentors continue to have relationships with the girls. Subsequently, much of the stress between the daughters and their mothers has seemed to decrease, and they have begun to communicate more positively. The mere presence of the mothers in the school on a regular basis seemed to serve as a calming and positive effect on their daughters. Finally, the mothers began to have positive feelings about the school, thereby being able to relate to the guidance counselor as a mentor.

As a result of the initial project results, the principal of the school thought that the mothers would be more responsive to natural mentors who were older and/or who might provide a mother figure, as did the guidance counselor. School personnel and teachers thought that schools might begin to facilitate real changes in families if this could be a real parental involvement venture. The principal and guidance counselor were receptive to the idea of using this project as a springboard for a long term pilot research project. It is hoped that this long term project will lend itself to research findings that will give more hard data and statistics regarding the effectiveness of mentoring programs.

Policy and Practice Implications for African American Adolescent Girls

This project has important implications for social workers and other human service professionals, who operate in school settings and who may play an active role in promoting violence prevention work with single parent families. These implications require a partnership and collaborative effort with human services professionals, the larger community, and the school system to implement such programs. Team members must be sensitive to the unique needs of African American adolescent girls and their single mothers. African American teenage mothers often are single, live with their mothers, and depend on their mothers' jobs or welfare money for financial support. They also most likely are to be in school and in need of a full range of social, racial, and cultural influences (Rhodes, Gingiss, and Smith 1994). It has been the experience of the guidance counselor of the Educare Bridge School that adolescent girls are expected to re-enter a school system that often is hostile to their return. These girls may have children themselves, in

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addition to emotional problems and problems pertaining to alcohol and substance abuse.

Given the current episodes of violence in schools and the growing national epidemic of poor academic performance, national policies and alternative programs need to address the needs of youth who are the perpetrators of disrupting the educational process. Social workers and other practitioners must become more aware of the significance of these problems, and new practice and preventative approaches need to be developed. A national survey of school social workers' perception of school violence as a problem by Astor, Behre, Fravil, and Wallace (1997) suggests that school social workers do not perceive violence as a serious problem on the basis of a single event, even when the event is life threatening. Perhaps the role of social workers might become one that is more actively involved in the planning and administration of violence prevention programs and the implementation of family mentoring programs. Because of the traditional role of school social workers as the connecting link between the home, school, and the community, they are ideal candidates for developing, implementing, and evaluating mentoring programs.

Astor, Vargas, Pitner, and Meyer (1999) have pointed out the difficulties with school-based programs that have been focused, primarily, on psychological and/or behavioral interventions, which have been relatively ineffective in reducing violence particularly when used alone. In a group of selected school-based prevention and intervention programs that show promise, all, except for one, Fast Track Program, are geared towards programs specifically developed for the youth involved. One program, Positive Adolescents Choice Training (P.A.C.T.), focused on social skills training, violence awareness, and anger management for African American youth. Such programs would be enhanced with the inclusion of mentoring for youth and for parents concurrently.

It is the opinion of the author that social workers in the schools are in a central position to promote, through mentoring programs, the building of self esteem and developing connecting relationships between family members and between schools, thus alleviating some of the stress within the home. Subsequently, these programs might lead to better ways of solving conflict in the home, school, and the community. Utilization of school social workers and guidance counselors in this manner could have far reaching effects on their practice with inner-city populations. Other community agencies, volunteers, and members from churches might also form partnerships in such efforts, particularly in providing mentors for the mothers.

Finally, policies specifically designed to address the needs of single parent mothers and their adolescent daughters, who live in stressful environments and attend alternative educational programs, might provide means by which these mothers and their daughters may re-enter society's work world. This could lead to the strengthening of both the family system and providing preventative measures for problems that may affect future generations. Incorporation of funds to provide more research, both quantitative and qualitative, could lead to the provision of mentoring programs within the curriculum for alternative programs in communities where violence is prevalent. These may be steps toward success in strengthening African American families and toward the empowerment of African American single parents and their daughters.

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APPENDIX A

Informed Consent

Participant's Name:
Address:
Telephone Number

Project Title: Mentors for Moms and Daughters

Description of Project: The purpose of this project is to work with Moms and their daughters in a mentor-mentee relationship for the duration of the daughter's time attending the Alternative School during the school year 1996-1997. Both Mom and her daughter will be assigned a mentor. The mentor for daughter will be engaging her in specific activities that will work towards helping to enhance the progress at school, in the home, and in the community. Specifically this project will seek to prevent violence, improve self-esteem and the quality of parenting.

Potential Benefits:
Persons who participate in this project may find this to be a different type of experience. Moms and daughters may gain a friend who will help them to have a better relationship with their peers and with their family members. They may also have better feelings about themselves. Their daughters may begin to experience a more satisfying school experience. The only risk is that sometimes it is difficult for people to accept new and different ways of dealing with conflict.

Consent:
I have been satisfactorily informed of the above project and its possible benefits and/or risks. I give my permission for my participation and for my daughter's participation.

Signature (Parent) _____ Date _____

Signature (Daughter) _____ Date _____

Signature (Project Director) _____ Date _____

APPENDIX B

NEEDED – MENTORS FOR MOMS AND THEIR DAUGHTERS

Do you want to work with a mom and her daughter as a mentor?

CHECK IT OUT! TAKE THE FOLLOWING QUIZ

Do you have at least two hours per week that you can devote to a teenager or her mom?

Are you sincerely interested in helping people to discover strengths in spite of their situation?

Do you believe that you can make a positive difference in the lives of young people who have experienced violence in their homes, schools, or communities?

Would you be willing to be a positive role model for a mom or her daughter?

Would you be willing to participate with your mentee in any of the following activities?

- walking in the park
- going to the library
- attending church
- attending a cultural activity
- developing a hobby
- studying homework
- attending other recreational activities (games etc.)
- just spending time talking/being a friend

If you answered yes to the above questions, we need you at the Alternative School.

For more information: Contact the guidance counselor: 780-5000

APPENDIX C

Date:

Congratulations! You are a mentor!

Webster defines a mentor as a wise and trusted counselor or teacher. For our girls and their mothers, this is just the role you will be playing and perhaps more. You may consider yourselves a nurturing role model, (a parent). Below you will find some guidelines and suggested activities that may help you to make this a meaningful experience for you and your mentee.

1. Daily contact with mentee by phone, letter/card, or physical when convenient. (These contacts are simply to touch base and to say I care about you and what happened to you today at school.) Just lend a listening ear for a few minutes, helping the mentee to structure the remainder of her evening or night. Remind her of homework, assist when you can.
2. Provide mentee with a picture of you so that she can always know that you are there. (Taking a picture of your mentee can be a rewarding experience as well.)
3. Find some strength/strengths to build on to encourage your mentee, i.e., artistic or other ability or talent.
4. Weekly physical contact/planned activity (the beginning of the week). Sunday is a good time for activity as this would be a good time to help your mentee to plan for the week and to set goals. Try to set small goals at the beginning, things that the mentee can actually accomplish. Remember this may be a new activity for your mentee.
5. Talk about the current problems that your mentee may be having. Help her to come up with solutions. Help her to write them down. Keeping a journal may be a good idea for this.
6. Suggested self-esteem and connecting activities: You may be creative and develop others.
    - attending church
    - picnics
    - shopping
    - walking in the park together
    - playing games together such as scrabble
    - attending a movie or play

- baking cookies
- going to Children's' Hospital or delivering a gift to a senior citizen

7. For Mentors of Mothers: Tell your mentee in your own words the following: Being a parent is a hard job. I want to help you to get a handle on it so that your child can get back on track. I will be here for you as your mentor for the next ___ months to help you. Someone else will be working with your daughter. When we complete this project together, you will be able to carry on some of the same activities with your daughter.
8. Educational Activities
    - motivation for GED
    - motivation for job development skills
    - motivation for college
    - self-development/physical/health/mental
9. Rituals
    - birthdays and special days
    - planning a daily routine
    - including daughters in plan
10. Mentors, girls, and mothers will meet with professional staff once per month for monitoring and evaluation.

APPENDIX D

Dear

Now that the semester has come to a close, we would like to take this opportunity to thank you for your participation in the Mentor Program at the _____ Alternative School. You have touched the girls and their families' lives in many positive and enriching ways of which you may not be aware. You have been a wonderful role model and friend to our girls and we know that they have benefited from your support during these months.

We are happy that some of you have chosen to continue with the girls even though they will be leaving and returning to their home schools to begin the new semester. This will be a great help and support to them during a critical transitional period.

For those of you who are waiting for a mentee to be assigned, we have new students coming in and will be contacting you soon. However, please feel free to contact us at anytime. You may reach us at _____.

We have not been as successful with the moms as we had hoped. However, we will continue to pursue this facet of the program this semester.

At our last meeting we decided to set the first Friday in each month as our meeting date for mentors. We will continue to meet from 11:30 until 12:30 over lunch. Our next meeting will be February 7th. We plan to have a training session during this meeting for all mentors. Please plan to come.

Sincerely,

Principal of the Alternative School

Program Director

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

A. Leavelle Cox, Assistant Professor at Virginia Commonwealth University, is a School Social Work Specialist. She is also the Coordinator for School Social Work Services at Virginia Commonwealth University in the School of Social Work and currently teaches the school social work course and the foundation practice course. She previously has worked in the Richmond Public Schools as a clinical social worker and has held various leadership roles in working with families, individuals, and groups.

EDITORIAL POLICY

Journal of School Social Work

The *Journal of School Social Work*, established in 1986 as the *Iowa Journal of School Social Work* and sponsored by the Iowa School Social Workers' Association, has been changed to emphasize the Association's commitment to accepting and publishing papers that reflect the diversity of practice by school social workers in the United States.

The *Journal of School Social Work* is a refereed journal that is committed to the enhancement of children's education and well-being from early intervention and preschool programs through high school. It's primary emphasis is on educational programs in the United States. The *Journal* accepts papers in various categories, noted below, that would be of interest to social work practitioners in the schools and that inform practice, policy, legislation, and education for school social work practice.

The *Journal* is accepting manuscripts in the following categories:

Full-Length Articles (14-18 pages), which may include research studies (qualitative and quantitative), case studies, description of projects, program evaluation, public policy, legislative issues, history, literature reviews, biography of leaders in school social work, and practice techniques.

Practice Innovations (2-8 pages) with individuals, families, groups, and communities; innovative interdisciplinary approaches; needs assessments.

Interviews (6-16 pages) of long-time school social workers and leaders in school social work, whose insight and contribution to the field of practice is evident and should be recorded for posterity.

Reflections or Narratives (Up to 18 pages) that describe personal experiences of helping others, effecting social change, resolving an ethical dilemma, and offering new insights to practice. Through success or failure, these experiences may illuminate practice in school settings.

Point-Counterpoint Opinions (8-14 pages), which address current controversies or issues related to social work services in educational settings. Papers must be written by at least two different authors with each "side" providing the authors' positions and the final opportunity to write a rejoinder.

Poetry (1-2 pages) that illuminates aspects of the profession and the life or needs of students, parents, and others served by school social workers and their colleagues.

Additional features include **Book and Film Reviews, sketches of visiting teacher pioneers and school social work leaders**, reviews of **Internet Resources, Guest Editorials**, and **Letters** to the Editor.

The Editor also invites **Leaders in School Social Work** (state, regional, national, and/or international) to author a reflections paper on their careers.

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Submissions: Mail an original, including an abstract of no more than 100 words, and three (3) high quality copies of the manuscript to Dr. James G. McCullagh, University of Northern Iowa, Department of Social Work, Sabin 113, Cedar Falls, IA 50614-0407. A disk is required after a manuscript has been accepted.

Queries: Dr. Jim McCullagh at 319/273-2399, 319/273-6006 (FAX), or by e-mail at james.mccullagh@uni.edu.

Format of Manuscript:

Include a **Cover Sheet**, which does not go out for review, the complete title of the submitted manuscript, authors' names, degrees, professional titles, institutional affiliations, and the designation of one author, if more than one, who is the corresponding author. The corresponding author is to include her or his address, phone number, e-mail address, and fax number.

Include an **Abstract** of between 75 and 100 words on a separate sheet.

Length of the manuscript should conform to the suggested page length for the categories noted on the other side. Manuscripts are to be double-spaced with one inch margins on all sides.

Style: *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (5th ed.). See the *Manual* for References. Footnotes are discouraged.

Review Process: Anonymous peer review by three reviewers and then by the Editor. **Review time** is approximately three months. Manuscripts are not returned unless accompanied by a self-addressed, postage-paid return envelope.

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Home Page URL: http://www.uni.edu/mccullag. The Home Page includes a collection of school social work resources, including a listing of journal articles, books and reports, bibliographies, and dissertations. The Page is constantly updated. See also "Jimmy's Web Page," which includes an extensive listing of web sites of interest to school social workers.

CORRECTION

Journal of School Social Work
Volume 11, No. 2

The correct title of the article by Dr. Susan Fineran is "**Sexual Minority Students and Peer Sexual Harassment in High School.**" We apologize for the error. Please correct the Table of Contents page and page 50 for Volume 11, number 2.

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EDITORIAL

SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK: A GROWING INTERNATIONAL PROFESSION

Marion Huxtable
Guest Editor

School social work was pioneered in the United Kingdom and the United States at the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century, as part of the movement to introduce universal education (Blyth & Milner, 1987; Costin, 1969). From its beginnings as a service to support school attendance, it grew into a broader range of services, became more firmly established in schools, and developed into a specialty of the social work profession. It also spread to additional countries, including the Bahamas, Sweden, Finland, Norway, Denmark, Canada, the Netherlands, Ghana, Argentina (by the 1960s), Malta, Germany, Australia, Hong Kong, Singapore, Poland (by the 1970s), Korea, Japan, Switzerland, Austria, New Zealand, Russia, Latvia, Hungary, Lithuania, Estonia, Macedonia, Sri Lanka, and Saudi Arabia (by the 1990s) (Huxtable, 1998; School Social Work Association of America, 1999; Students Care Service, 2001). In some cases the concept was borrowed from countries where it was well developed, and in others it evolved from existing similar professions, such as social pedagogy (Jones, 1994).

Towards the end of the twentieth century, school social workers started to make more contacts with their peers in other countries. The development of the Internet and the widespread use of e-mail made it easier to locate school social work organizations around the world. The International Network for School Social Work (http://internationalnetwork-schoolsocialwork.htmlplanet.com), the first international school social work conference in Chicago in 1999, and the first book about school social work worldwide (Huxtable & Blyth, 2002) are all developments of the last 10 years. It is clear that they were facilitated by these new means of communication. Interest in international activities has grown more rapidly since the International Network, and the conference made international contacts easier and more personal. A second international school social work conference will take place in Stockholm, Sweden, in May 2003, providing another opportunity for school social workers to meet peers from overseas (http://internationalnetwork-schoolsocialwork.htmlplanet.com/international_conference.htm).

This issue of the *Journal of School Social Work* is the first international issue of a school social work journal and is one indication of the increased interest in international contacts. The publication of an international edition of a journal also serves to heighten the expectation that school social workers can forge valuable links with colleagues in other countries. The contacts between Marianne Pennecamp, from the United States, and Heidi Pörschke, from the former East Germany, described in the first article, illustrate this possibility. The article shows that what we learn from colleagues in other countries can offer a radically different way of looking at the same problems. This new way of perceiving issues can lead to rapid improvements in the field. Marianne, a well known leader in school social work in the United States, is also an example of migration from one country to another and how our cultural roots affect our interpretation of the professional role. In many countries, such as the United States and many western democracies, the culture increasingly is becoming a blend of cultures; the school social work profession reflects this, both in its own makeup and in its work with a diverse group of children.

School social work is growing, not only in the United States and other countries where it is well established, but is expanding into countries where there have been no social work services in schools. How a profession spreads around the world is not easy to trace. It is more complex, for example, than the spread of a commercial phenomenon, such as Pokémon that became the favorite game of children around the world in a few months in 1998. In school social work, there is both borrowing of concepts from one country by another and also independent development of local ideas into a role that is similar to what is called school social work in the United States. Readers have an opportunity, through several articles in this issue, to consider the way in which school social work is expanding to more countries and whether the role described is what they would consider to be school social work.

The article by Vladimir Labath and Boris Siroky, about the potential of school social work in Slovakia, challenges readers to consider ways in which this first experimental program in Slovakia is similar to school social work as they know it, as well as how it differs. Readers also can consider what will be the most likely influences on its development. In addition, the articles from Germany and Slovakia illustrate how social work was reintroduced into Eastern Europe after the fall of communism.

School social work was initiated in Korea with pilot programs in the 1990s. Groups of Korean social workers made trips to Illinois in the United States and to Sweden to study various models for design and implementation of services (personal communication with Ki Whan Kim, professor in the Department of Social Welfare, Yonsei

University, Seoul, Korea, May 12, 2001). The speed with which training, research, specialty professional associations, and publications in school social work were introduced in Korea coincides with these international contacts. Readers will note that the pilot project at a girls' high school in Korea, described in this journal by In Young Han and Min Jung Kim, focuses primarily on improving personal adjustment and mental health through education and counseling. In the United States, the focus of school social work has changed many times; however, there currently is a renewed emphasis on using school social workers to provide mental health services in schools. The issue of whether to focus change efforts on individuals or on the community is a recurring one that challenges and vexes school social workers around the world. It is a topic ripe for international discussion.

The article by Marie-Antoinette Sossou raises the importance of school social workers being advocates for children. Child abuse and its occurrence in schools as corporal punishment is the topic of the article. Helping to prevent child abuse in schools and opposing its continuing use is a universal role for school social workers. Sossou, in common with several of the authors, has studied and participated in conferences in the United States. Mohammed Al-Garni from Saudi Arabia, another contributor to this issue of the *Journal*, also completed part of his social work training in the Untied States. Overseas study is one indicator of how social work is becoming an international profession.

The article from Switzerland by Matthias Drilling and Dorothea Gautschin illustrates how school social work has grown out of the work of youth welfare in some European countries. The reader can look for similarities between school social work in Switzerland and the former East Germany in the way it developed as a collaboration between youth welfare and schools. The pilot program in Switzerland also raises challenging issues about how to work with young people from other cultures and countries, an important issue for school social workers around the world.

This edition of the *Journal* illustrates several issues that a discipline such school social work faces in becoming a more effective profession, such as the need for research. School social work practitioners need research to inform our understanding of the needs of school children, their problems, and how to solve them effectively. Several articles in this issue present research findings. For example, the article by Mohammed Al-Garni on "The Impact of Family Structure and Family Function Factors on the Deviant Behaviors of High School Students in Mecca City, Saudi Arabia" provides insight into adolescent behavior in a country where behavioral studies are rare compared with western countries. The rapid social changes that affect youth in Saudi Arabia also affect Arabic and/or Muslim youth living with their

families in western societies. School social workers in the West must be informed about Arabic cultures and Islam and use this knowledge to help immigrant children and youth attending schools in the West, as well as to help the schools adapt to the needs of the children. The book review by Dee Ellen Epley Birtwhistle of *Zlata's Diary* prompts school social workers to consider creative ways of helping school personnel understand the needs of immigrant children, especially those who arrive in our schools following the trauma of war and relocation.

The article by Sharron Singleton, entitled "Community Networking for School-Age Children," introduces several important questions for the future of the profession: training for school social workers; school-based services (provided by social workers employed by school systems) versus school-linked services (social work services provided to schools by other agencies); the title used by school social workers; and how to introduce social work services into schools where there have been none. School-based versus school-linked service is an interesting topic in light of the articles from Germany and Switzerland. It is also a controversial subject in the United States, where school social workers generally prefer to be based in schools. The issue has been written about extensively for the last several years (Aguirre, 1995; Briar-Lawson, Lawson, Collier, & Joseph, 1997; Corrigan & Bishop, 1997; Cousins, Jackson & Till, 1997; Lee, 1998). The questions of how to introduce the service and how to fund it are relevant to school systems around the world. This article shows one route to establishing social work services in schools and may be useful in several countries, even in the United States, where school social work is relatively well established.

Today, it is easier than ever to learn about school social work in other countries and to make contact with peers overseas. Readers are encouraged to expand their understanding of their profession by reading the articles in this issue of the *Journal of School Social Work* from school social work peers around the world, and by exploring the school social work web sites given below.

School Social Work Web Sites

The International Network for School Social Work has information and news for school social workers around the world at http://internationalnetwork-schoolsocialwork.htmlplanet.com

The School Social Work Association of America at http://www.sswaa.org/ has links to state and regional school social work associations in the United States

National Association of Social Work, School Social Work Practice Section at http://www.naswdc.org/sections/ssw/default.htm is a section of the National Association of Social Workers

The Swedish School Social Workers Association at http://www.skolkurator.nu/

School Social Work Association of Finland at http://www.koulukuraattorit-skolkuratorer.fi/Index.htm

http://www.schulsozialarbeit.ch provides information about school social work in Switzerland.

http://www.schulsozialarbeit.at/ has information about school social work in Austria

The European Union Project for School Social Work has an informative web site at http://members.aon.at/schulsozialarbeit

http://www.schulsozialarbeit.net offers information about school social work in Germany

International Federation of Social Workers has links to 77 social work associations around the world at http://www.ifsw.org/

Global Social Work: An Internet-Based International Social Work Community at http://hometown.aol.com/egeratylsw/globalsw.html

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CONCEPT, EXPERIENCE, AND DILEMMAS OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK: A MESSAGE FROM SLOVAKIA

Vladimir Labath and Boris Siroky

ABSTRACT

Slovakia is going through a process of extensive economic, political, and social transformation. The social work profession has now been restored after 40 years of stagnation during the Communist regime. A social work project has been set up at The First Private Grammar School (students age 14-18 years) in Bratislava, representing the first documented introduction of school social work in Slovakia. Graduate social worker B. Siroky, employed by the school, provides several activities, including both intervention (individual and group counseling) and prevention (drug abuse prevention, personal development classes, and peer mediation). He also teaches an ethics course for all students. At present, there is an initiative to include school social work into new school law.

No tradition of school social work exists in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. Several countries in the region, however, have initiated social work in schools since the fall of Communism. This article describes how the concept of school social work is being discussed in Slovakia, its introduction into a school, and some dilemmas for the social work profession to take into account if school social work is to be developed further in Slovakia.

For the reader to understand the potential of school social work in Slovakia, it is helpful to be aware of the course of both social work and education during the changes that have taken place over the last decades. Slovakia, in the heart of Europe, was part of Czechoslovakia for about 65 years. It became a separate state after the fall of Communism, when Czechoslovakia peacefully divided into two countries, the Czech Republic and Slovakia in 1993.

In the years between the two World Wars and after World War II, social work enjoyed a very strong position in Czechoslovakia. It was supported considerably by the State, and extensive services also were provided by communities, charities, and the church. When the

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Communists took over in 1948, however, social work almost disappeared as a profession and a service. In Communist ideology, there was a blind belief in the materialistic understanding of human beings and society, and it was considered that there was no need for social work, because it was claimed that people or groups with problems did not exist. Individuals, families, and organizations were controlled strictly by the State, using various means, including the secret police, and real problems existing in society were hidden.

The educational system was marked similarly by the crude methods of the Communist system. All private, community, and religious schools were closed. The teaching profession was publicly declared as a political one, and the academic freedom of teachers and their pupils was badly affected. Conformity and obedience of students and teachers were openly demanded. Political authorities made the decisions about content and methods used in schools. Marxist philosophy was the only permitted ideology. There was a unified school system, in which all students learned from the same books and in the same way.

The 1989 anti-Communist revolution brought changes to the whole society that have affected social work and education. In 1991, one of the first University Department of Social Work in Czechoslovakia was founded at Comenius University, Bratislava, 40 years after the closing of the University of Social Work (Vysoka Skola Socialni). Non-governmental organizations, private agencies, communal, and church social service organizations have come into being. New social phenomena appeared for which our society was not sufficiently prepared, including the rise of drug addiction, juvenile criminality, homelessness, and unemployment. The extent of these social problems stemmed from the opening of society in 1989. Every totalitarian system has the potential for reducing social problems by using unlimited power. That was the case in this region 12 years ago. For example, unemployment was forbidden under the Communist system and many people were arrested just for being unemployed. With the demise of the totalitarian system, social problems surfaced. In the early 1990s, the social work profession started to build up its image and its professional territory.

The Concept of School Social Work

The potential scope of activity for the school social worker can be defined on the basis of a few examples. A typical basic school in Slovakia will serve as an example, illustrating the current disciplines that are involved in schools. The *teacher* primarily is engaged in the pupils' education and development of their potential, the *specialized teacher* (educator) is in charge of their recreational activities and homework, and the *educational advisor* focuses on their future professional orientation. In State schools, which still predominate in Slovakia, a specialized profession, called *educator*, provides after-school activities. The *educational advisor* is a sort of tutor who helps students to look for appropriate future employment or education. *Psychologists* from the child psychological service, funded by the government, are appointed to schools, which they visit. It might be argued that these professionals would be sufficient to serve the needs of students.

The school must be recognized as a social system. Within this framework we can say that relationships among children, between teachers, parents and children, their differing abilities, and different children's aspirations and performance are factors present in every school. Teachers often have only a very vague understanding about the pupils' lives within the group. For example, bullying takes many forms from rejection by peers to outright torture. It is usually well hidden from teachers. Bullying can lead to an aversion to school, reduced performance, feelings of inferiority, and a desire for revenge. The teacher may or may not be aware of the situations and how the bullying is affecting a student.

Another example of a situation that is often concealed from the teachers, but well known to the students, is the use of addictive drugs in school. Teachers are often out of touch with the students, and the school is isolated from the community. To generalize, behind these phenomena of bullying and drug use exists a social background. And just this is the social worker's specialization. The teacher has to devote his or her time to teaching and not to solving social problems such as bullying and drug use. It is the *educator* who can bridge schoolwork and the pupils' spare time. The *educational advisor* is informed on their vocational growth. The *psychologist* usually works only with selected individuals or groups once or twice a week, but not with the whole social system of the school.

The social worker, on the other hand, is an expert as to how the social environment affects the individual and how to use the

environment to help the individual's development. The social worker's knowledge base is about the social environment's influence on the individual and about group dynamics, as these affect both small groups and organizations. The social worker understands risk factors, strengths, and the etiology of child endangerment. Using this knowledge, the social worker is able to assess reliably the impact of the given social environment on the individual. In addition, the social worker specializes in methods of influencing the environment by using social mechanisms, for instance, building a positive peer culture, stimulating open two-way communication, developing principles of community, and cooperating with the family and the social network. All of this can be achieved through individual or group work, by connecting the community, the family, and the school system with after-school activities, and by working with the school as a social system.

So, while the *psychologist* comes from the counseling center to meet with referred students only, and the *teacher, educator,* and *educational advisor* are engaged in a pedagogical dimension, the *school social worker's* aim is, above all, to build the school as a "healthy" social system. *A healthy school environment* accepts the pupil, stimulates his or her potential, supports positive emotions, does not evoke fear, mediates the experience of success, teaches how to communicate in an open way, prefers cooperation, respects the opinions of others, and is the model of constructive problem-solving. The issue is to create optimal conditions for a healthy development of the young person. In other words, school social work's target is development of the socializing function of the school.

In addition to the use of primary prevention as described above, the social worker is well placed for secondary prevention through the early identification of signs that the student is at risk. The social worker who is in close contact with the school, the students, the families, and the community is able to spot the early signs that a student is developing problems. The social worker in the school service can begin to work with the individual's problem behavior almost at its very beginning, whether the issue is a peer problem, behavioral, emotional, drug use, delinquency, or a home problem such as abuse. An unhealthy environment created by the adults also may be at issue. The rule "The earlier you start working with the endangered individual, the more probable is his/her improvement" is generally accepted. Expressed in the terms of social work, this is what we mean by secondary prevention.

The third level involves work with problem pupils, risky conduct, managing different kinds of stress, and helping students to express their needs. On this level, the school social worker's role appears to be closer to the profession of the psychologist in Slovakia.

But the focus of interest of a psychologist is rather the inner psychic life of the individual, while the social worker focuses on the interpersonal and group sphere. The school social worker has to cooperate very closely with other professionals, including psychologists, special education teachers, community social workers, psychiatrists, pediatricians, and police. The role does not replace other professions but focuses on the social arena that is the source of endangerment, and this aspect does not fall under the responsibility of these other disciplines.

The school social worker also can ask the psychologist to do some individual or group counseling for certain pupils. This happens in cases when less intensive means have already been used. For instance, a pupil who tends to misuse weaker ones and who has already been through a program of social sensitivity and been faced with his potential victims in mediation, may need more in-depth counseling. The social sensitivity program is focused on increasing interpersonal sensitivity, empathy, and awareness of others' needs. Victim-offender mediation is provided when signs of bullying appear at school. The victim is offered the peer mediation, which is initiated if accepted by the victim. Referral to specialized services, such as psychological services, is also a role for the school social worker.

All three levels–better quality socialization, early disclosing of negative symptoms, and quick intervention–can be provided in varied ways. The school social worker's service covers a very wide range of programs, from social and sports activities both in and out of school, integrating programs for the handicapped, work with parents and the social network of problem individuals, solving violence in schools, prevention of addiction, developing ethnic tolerance, sexual education, and dealing with AIDS. It includes peer programs in the sense of peer education, peer counseling, peer programs of preventing drug addict, problem resolution by peer mediation, and also dealing with problems between adults and children or adolescents. The last mentioned problem is solved through indirect conciliation. It means that the school social worker separately analyzes the problem with all sides and stimulates open communication.

Experience in Applying Social Work at a Secondary School

The first private school for students between 14 and 18 years of age in Bratislava, established in the early 1990s, is a school in which

social work is being applied. There is information that documents attempts to work with youth at several other schools, but school social work, to the extent described at this private school, is currently unique in Slovakia. This private school is not a typical secondary school. It differs in the selection of students and of the teaching staff. The school climate is different, in that it is much less formal, relations between students and teachers are much closer, students are prepared to be more independent, and critical thinking is highly supported. Its non-traditional concept enables and creates positive conditions for the work of the social worker.

The social worker is effective in two main roles–as a teacher of ethics and a counsellor who accompanies the students in their after-school activities for 4 years. The teaching of ethics is of a wide span, comprising the development of the students' potential. The school social worker works with both small groups and individuals. He directs his attention to the development of social sensibility, positive self-respect, understanding oneself and others, determining the sources of aggression and tolerance ensuing from it, insight into interactions that exist in classes and groups, uses or misuses of power by an individual or small group, and effective communications and open feedback. The social worker deals with developing and current conflicts, early diagnosis of personal crises, and problems in peer, family, and school relations. All of these activities are in progress during the lessons of ethics. There are no grades for this course; rather, the school provides an open opportunity for the social worker, which creates good, informal relations between him and the pupils. The basic mutual trust makes it possible to perceive signals and to diagnose problems, conflicts, and crises of individuals and groups in the social system of the school, family, and society. Due to the possibility of seeing the students within the context of the class and peers, it is rather easy to intervene effectively and set up preventive programs of peer help, such as trainings for social skills for individuals and for groups.

Social worker Boris Siroky initiated this school social work program at The First Private Grammar School in Bratislava and has been realizing several activities for 8 years. Due to the trust between the social worker and the students, information about students taking drugs has reached the social worker very quickly. Individual help, therefore, could start at a stage when addiction had not yet developed. The classmates' information and cooperation are significant. When there is no improvement in the situation, the second step is contact with parents, the aim of which is information and direct discussions between parents and the student. This approach is based on psychodynamic concepts. Later, the help of experts in treating drug addiction is

provided. The described approach has proved to be very effective within the school context. It has been a clear declaration of the school's proceeding with the problem of drugs.

Understanding and help to the student and family are preferred at the first stages. Expert treatment follows later. Besides traditional activities, both individual and group, an outdoor summer camp, in which 14- to 15-year-old students took part with abstinent people who were formerly addicted to alcohol, enabled the students to learn from the experience of these people, which proved to be very effective. The students prepared a program together with them. They had the opportunity to meet addictions counsellors. These meetings and information were intensified by the beautiful natural environment and attractive activities of a healthy lifestyle and stimulated the students' interest and activity to help other at-risk peers.

The school social worker also initiated a training program for peer mediation in the field of understanding and solving conflicts. Participants, students and teachers, were extraordinarily attracted by this form of conflict resolution. After this training, still within the frame of the program, they acted as mediators among their peers in the school. There were mediations of conflicts between students. The program has a cognitive behavioral framework and continues to develop at the school

The school social work program recently has concentrated on the rise of aggressive behaviour, intolerance, violence, and bullying. It has been crucial to detect early signs of destructive behaviour at the first stage of abuse. Target work with the group dynamic of the school class is very effective. Open naming of the problem, confrontation with the actors of violence, and strengthening the position of the victims of it are appropriate. Part of the program is the support of the victims, the training of assertive behaviour, and raising the aggressors' social sensitiveness. These steps have led to stopping such behaviour at its very beginning. Our experience is that the earlier violence is noticed, the easier one can cope with it.

A significant part of the school social worker's activities is his work with outsiders, rejected students of the class. In working with both the individual and the group, the focus is on strengthening self-assurance, self-confidence, and assertiveness. Eventually, a sensitive feedback is used, which leads to the improvement of the person's position within the frame of the group. The aim of the feedback is to stimulate behavioral change. Social skills training of asserting oneself in the group is a part of the program. The main activities have been

- Open thematic discussions and a training program in social skills (including lessons in ethics),

- Individual and group counseling (after school),
- Participation in the working of the school (peer mediation, orientation camps as the first contact with the new school, school excursions),
- Contacts and counseling for parents (in the case of the student's problem behavior, e.g., the student's under-achievement),
- Cooperation with the teachers of the school (concerning the atmosphere, the students' problems, the relations between the teachers and the students within the frame of the school),
- Various programs (i.e., contacts with former addicts), and
- Relations with experts in different fields (e.g., psychologists and doctors).

As yet, school social work in Slovakia exists only in isolated exemplary programs, such as the one described here. Social work skills, however, have been applied in school settings in a variety of individual projects, although these have not been recognized as representing the school social work profession as such. For example, a group of workers from training and consulting non-governmental organizations provides ongoing preparation of peer mediators at various secondary schools. They have trained 80 peer mediators so far and coordinate the work of these in different schools. The second project is drug abuse prevention in schools. A group of teachers has been trained as trainers for the prevention of drug abuse among students. In recent years, about 150 teachers have been trained in this field.

Dilemmas to Be Faced

One of the basic dilemmas is whether school social work will expand in Slovakia. Many barriers to the introduction of new projects exist. Attitudes toward new activities in social work are very much the same as people's attitudes to social transformation. In Slovakia, the transformation processes started some years ago. In the social work area, it means changing the preferred administrative approach for a dynamic one. Many of the barriers have a psychological basis, such as defensive behavior or insecurity of those in established positions. Recently, social work is vying for the definition of its competencies. For many years, the social work role was carried by psychologists, educators, psychotherapists, consultants, and others. In State schools, there are educational advisers whose work is, above all, orientated to advising students on choosing their future careers. They, in the same

way as the teachers, resent the social worker's engagement in the school as interference with their area of competence. In all State schools there is extensive cooperation with child guidance centers. Problem students are sent to the psychologist. He, too, regards social workers as competitors. Differentiation between the field of work of psychologists and of social workers is very general and surely discussible.

The dilemma exists as to how to define the social worker's role in the school. He/she focuses attention on the students' social problems, on the relation between pupil and teacher, between the school and the community, and between the family and the school. Should the social worker act as a consultant, trainer of social skills, expert on the social environment, facilitator, and/or mediator? Considering the fact that the social workers' orientation is mainly towards the pupil and the student, another dilemma arises. Is their aim to stimulate the positive phenomena of the social surrounding or to eliminate the negative ones? It is not clear if the social worker prefers to correct the behavior of problem juveniles by reducing violence and improving relationships or to create a positive peer culture, to build up a healthy social environment, and develop the students' potential. The dilemma is whether to focus on prevention or intervention. A further question is, if we focus our attention on the social environment, will we be more interested in the inward life of the school or its connection with the community?

The question of the social worker's competence and responsibility is also a dilemma and, by no means, a negligible one. Is he/she responsible to the client, the school, the director, to educational authorities, to parents, or to the community? Financing and lines of authority are related to all of this.

To date, only a few attempts exist to build school social work in Slovakia, in spite of the fact that the population is over 5 million. School social work is trying to define itself. In these few projects, the role of school social worker, as described here, has been more or less the combination of "specialized" teacher and independent counselor. His responsibility in this case is to develop social skills of students, teach ethics, offer them an after school program, help them with their problems, and give advice to the school management and authorities.

School social work has a future in Slovakia. Work remains to define its place in the school system, to stimulate interest, and to speed up the process of acceptance. At present, the State education system has been going through a process of change. The centralized system has been changing to a decentralized one, so that there is now no chance that school social work could be implemented uniformly across the country. In addition, teachers, principals, and school councils

protect their own specific interests and do not look at a broader picture of need. The non-State schools (private, church, and community schools) are more likely to be open to new ideas. Our best opportunity to start disseminating ideas about the potential of school social work is through open seminars, workshops, and conferences in the region, in collaboration with colleagues from surrounding countries such as the Czech Republic, Hungary, and Austria. At the same time, social work students also are offered a school social work course at Comenius University and, therefore, will be ready to provide services. The task before us is to continue to inform teachers, school, local, and state authorities about the need for the services that school social work can provide and to work with them to accept this new resource in the schools.

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THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK IN SWITZERLAND: A PILOT PROJECT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

Matthias Drilling and Dorothea Gautschin

This paper demonstrates, in the light of a 2-year research project, that young people increasingly find themselves confronted with the challenge of shaping their identity from a confusing range of choices produced by a rapidly-changing society. The traditional agents of socialization (peers, parents, and community) provide few answers to problem situations, such as youth poverty, joblessness, negative self-esteem, and only partial assistance in coming to terms with the developmental tasks specific to youth. Many young people experience various crises (some of which vary between boys and girls, as shown in this research) in the course of constructing their identity. School Social Work as a sector of youth welfare is well placed for a new task as an agent of socialization.

School social work was first introduced (under the title *travail social en ecole)* into Switzerland in 1974, in the French speaking cantons (administrative units) in the cities of Geneva and Lausanne. School social workers in Lausanne are part of the medical staff in schools, whereas those in Geneva are in a subdivision of the youth and justice department. Today, there are around 100 school social workers in Switzerland, most of them in the German speaking cantons. Nearly all of them work at the upper levels of compulsory education in Grades 9 and 10, with students between 13 and 16 years old. There are only a few projects in primary schools (Grades 1 through 6). Many school social workers are employed by the school, while some are staff of the youth and justice departments. School social workers have offices in the schools and are employed on at least a half-time basis. The professional title used is "Schulsozialarbeit," literally school social work.

School social work in Switzerland currently is the preferred collaboration model for schools and youth welfare. Despite the cost of employing social work staff, more schools in cities and their suburbs are hiring school social workers. This is in order to make education more effective and to relieve the teachers from needing to handle social problems themselves.

There are three general aims of school social work in Switzerland: (1) to support young people in the process of socialization; (2) to help them cope successfully with their life; and (3) to assist them in finding solutions for personal and/or social problems. School social work relies on the methodology of professional social work, providing counseling, mentoring, and support for students, and services for parents and teaching staff. School social work is offered as a readily accessible, voluntary service for both prevention and intervention. This definition of school social work as a youth welfare activity was developed by the University of Applied Sciences, Department of Social Work in Basle in 1999 (see Drilling & Stäger 2000a, 2000b; Drilling 2001).

Theoretical Background and Challenges

Adolescence represents a transitional phase in a human lifespan. Olbrich (1981) encapsulates the developmental process in the concept of transition and refers to a qualitative and/or quantitative discontinuity. He refers by way of examples to identity crisis (Erikson, 1950) and the generation gap (Adelson, 1979), but he observes that Coleman (1978), refusing such stereotyping, posits a multidimensional dynamic of change that actively involves young people and is oriented towards developmental changes brought about by continual adaptation. According to Seiffge-Krenke (1984), the salient features of the transitional concept are interconnection of developmental tasks and the relative conformity with which changes are mastered. Flammer (1999) also points out that the period of adolescence is to be understood as a change in social status, not necessarily fraught with problems such as intergenerational conflicts, uncertainty about identity, delinquency, drug-taking, and suicidal tendencies (p. 82). Compared to childhood and adulthood, he sees youth as a perilous period, in that the likelihood of these problems increases. Nonetheless, only a minority of young people are unable to deal with them. Sociological studies of personal situations and life courses help to define the characteristics of the young people concerned. For instance, Mayer (1995) shows that the economic and social order in Europe since the second world war results in "erosion of normal life history," bringing insecurity of occupational status for poorly or insufficiently educated young people in particular.

Flammer (1966) points out that those young people who are unable to cope with the problems of their developmental stage are in the minority. More recent youth-welfare research draws attention to a rising number of young people who take their social or personal problems to

specialized agencies (cf. Olk, 1999; Thimm, 1998). Here, the school presents itself as an indispensable socialization device in our society, and especially as a diagnostic center.

Developmental Tasks

Developmental tasks (Havighurst, 1972) are presented as an aid to systematization and can be described as the attainment and retention of identity tasks in changing surroundings, under changing conditions, and within changing relationships (Oerter, 1982, p. 264). Owing to physical maturation, personal endeavor, and social expectations, developmental tasks are specific to a determinate phase in the life course. They dictate the learning goals in each phase of life for coping flexibly with the challenges and stressors in various situations. Successful accomplishment of developmental tasks brings satisfaction and allows subsequent tasks to be more capably handled, whereas, failure gives the individual a sense of insecurity and entails social disapproval and difficulties in performing future tasks. Havighurst (1972) has outlined developmental tasks during youth on the basis of studies made in the USA. According to the findings of Dreher and Dreher (1985), they also apply, albeit less extensively, to young people in our European culture. Here, it is necessary to bear in mind the comment by Baacke (1999) that developmental tasks in youth need to be worked out with young people, because today adult-imposed ones can no longer be unreservedly considered to command "mutual consent."

Young people need work and leisure that make appropriate day-to-day physical demands, and they need to be able to come to terms with their physical appearance. The cult "of the body" goes with the lifestyle and aura of youth. Youth cultures offer scope for dramatizing one's own corporeality, whether in presentation of self or trying out fashions or exploring one's limits. For these purposes, the peer group provides a field of comparative experiment that fosters young peoples' socialization and self-esteem. The crucial point for young peoples' self-awareness and self-esteem is to achieve something through their appearance or performance (Petermann & Petermann, 1992). Discernible dangers exist where the body is under extreme strain over a lengthy period, whether, for instance, in extreme types of sport, inordinate use of stimulants, or nutritional disorders.

Young people are called upon to find individual solutions regarding gender-specific behavior and to shape their own gender role. Today, this task admittedly has become more difficult but also more

creative, as roles are being redefined and broadened by social change (though lack of role models also brings uncertainty). Crises are observed, especially among young people from foreign cultural backgrounds. How do young people manage to define their gender role when they are caught between the role requirements of two or more cultures and must decide how to shape their own roles?

Young people face the task of constructing new relationships with adults and peers and attaining more mature forms of interaction. Relationships with the opposite sex and same-sex friendships must be tested and practiced. Crises can occur when personal latitude is drastically restricted by the prejudices of sections of society or reference groups. How are young people ever to reconcile their own needs with idealized media images in achieving a satisfying sex life and partnership?. How do young people come to terms with their longings and with real-life possibilities at a transition stage when society, although it offers them choice, provides few pointers and limited opportunities?

In order to achieve autonomy, young people must develop some emotional distance from earlier significant others such as parents and transform the relationships. Dependence on parents decreases and makes way for more of a partnership (though not necessarily a close one). This is achieved seldom without some (more or less) conflict, and it can be painful to adolescents and parents alike. Although youth cultures function as an alternative basis of identity by providing other relational and operational possibilities, conflicts can arise within and between the alternative socialization systems. Many youth cultures today presuppose high financial capability. This can spell psychological and social risks for young people of limited means by imperiling their participation and status in the group (Döbert et al., 1980; Dreher & Dreher, 1985).

One social function of adolescence consists in preparation for working life. At a public and private level, adolescence is defined generally as a socialization process aimed at becoming active and economically useful (Hurrelmann & Wolf, 1995). Youth unemployment and scarcity of study places and apprenticeships in Switzerland limit job prospects and hamper development. This applies particularly to the undereducated (Mayer, 1995). Concern about possible unemployment is added to worry about the material future and fear of social demotion and eventual social isolation (Nitsch & Hackfort, 1981, p. 270). In this respect, young peoples' tolerance of strain is tested severely, because present-day society has to live with higher levels of unemployment than in the past, and the worth and status of the individual can no longer be defined purely in terms of work.

For young people, the apparent range of choice can conflict with scarcity of resources (money, jobs, and training places). The socially disadvantaged, the educationally handicapped, and some young foreigners

face more training obstacles, because they often hold lower graduation qualifications or none, or cannot afford lengthy training. They, therefore, have less occupational choice and are more vulnerable to unemployment. Having an occupation and gaining a secure position and recognized status in society is thus not possible for some young people, or only on harsher terms. For them, the requisite individual conditions must be enhanced, effective coping strategies devised, and rewarding vocational training and employment opportunities secured. This entails social support measures before all else.

Young people are expected to assume social and political responsibility. Difficulties and breakdowns are observed among young foreigners and young people living in precarious conditions. This is because society on the one hand requires all young people to accept obligations but on the other hand excludes foreign youngsters–a growing proportion not only of Basle's population–from exercise of political rights. Where underprivileged young people are concerned, there is the affront of having no recognized status in society, hence receiving scant recognition. There is also the danger of a number of markedly different or antagonistic youth cultures of differing background and origin, aggravating conflicts and exclusion and possibly generating violence.

The construction of a system of values and morals that are in harmony with one's conscience is another developmental task that faces youth. Autonomy of values is not achieved by the majority of young people, or, if so, only partially (Drilling & Stäger 2000a; Drilling 2001). Our thesis is that rapid social change and plurality of values allow diversity of behavior, but that this, in turn, increases uncertainty, creates difficult choices, and produces loss of meaning. Hence, there is a growing call for certainty and clear guidelines for many young people who hanker after straightforward explanatory and behavioral models.

Problem Areas

In the attempt to specify problem areas, school social work with young people typically classifies problem areas into school, family, near community (family excluded), and, more narrowly personal matters (see Table 1).

Table 1
Problem Areas and Their Dimensions as Part of School Social Work

Problem Area	Dimensions
School	Violence (physical, sexual, mental, verbal) Vandalism Theft Conflicts (with staff or pupils) Disruptive classroom behavior Under-performance Absenteeism
Family	Violence (physical, sexual, mental, verbal) Conflicts (with parents or siblings) Social control by parents Integration problems (young people from other cultures) Divorce-related problems Running away
Near community (family excluded)	Violence (physical, sexual, mental, verbal) Conflicts (with boy/girl friend or in peer group) Separation from boy/girl friend Social control by relatives
Personal	Occupational prospects Drugs/alcoholism Anorexia/bulimia Sexual behavior Pregnancy Self-inflicted injury Financial worries Threatened expulsion Referral to a counseling agency Instability (psycho-social/psychosomatic)

(Engel & Hurrelmann, 1989; Drilling 2001)

It is clear that transitions in our society can pose a serious challenge, so that the first deep personal crises can arise in youth. Although children can experience extremely difficult situations and periods of acute distress, existential crises in adolescence are a novel phenomenon for many youth. The reason for them is that adolescents experience their own situation more comprehensively through the possibility of self-reflecting. Crises, thus, can affect the entire personality and be interpreted in terms of the future as well as the present. Young people are challenged to overcome these crises. They must develop strategies despite their still-limited practical knowledge of how to go about it.

For adolescents, the distancing from their parents and the desire for independence that occur in adolescence mean that many young people in stressful situations lean on their parents less, if at all. They are

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attempting to find their own way and follow it independently. In the process, they must endure various kinds of uncertainty, especially in our era of wide choice as to values, norms, and mode of living, with few well-established models. The future is perpetual uncertainty, and this may unleash anxiety because life, though indeed comprehended by looking back, is necessarily discovered by going forwards and its problems solved as we go along.

From a developmental-psychology perspective, consolidation of identity is the central task of adolescence (Baacke, 1994). The concept of identity, however, is as variously defined as the age bracket of adolescence. According to Oerter (1982), exponents of sociology and psychology agree that identity is seen by the person themselves and their social environment as being what makes their existence unique. This consolidation is necessary for community living in its present form to be possible. Barkhaus (1999) asserts that Habermas, Döbert et al. (1980), and Krappmann (1978), the exponents of 1960s and 1970s identity theory in Germany, already saw a "mobilized" society in which there were no more "hard and fast" models, and that divergent expectations and contradictory forms of involvement were possible (Krappmann, 1978, p. 10). Normal biographies, as described by Erikson, are being replaced increasingly by flexible, de-standardized life courses. Nevertheless, in contrast to post-modernist arguments, there are those who argue on normative and empirical grounds that it is necessary to construct an identity that provides continuity, consistency, and autonomy across the range of social situations (Döbert, Habermas, & Nunner-Winkler, 1980). Identity is construed as a process that includes danger and possible crises. Barkhaus further points out that, in the post-modernists' conception of identity, successful construction of an identity fosters bodily and mental health as well as a subjective sense of happiness (Storch, 1999).

In the writings of Baacke (1994) on the subject, while the construction of a distinctive ego identity is central to personality-building, tension ever more frequently occurs between orientations and life-styles propounded by parents and the desire to assert one's own ego without guidance (pp. 112 ff.). Young people emancipate themselves from parents, particularly at an emotional level, and associate more with peers. Ego assertion in youth can be reinforced by the peer group. This is because all young people find themselves in the same psycho-social position, moving from childhood, in which others have control over them, to responsible adulthood, in which clarification of roles is necessary and uncertainty regarding them must be overcome. Apart from the peer group, Baacke (1999) considers that parents continue to be the most important guiding element in the social network, especially in problematic situations. Admittedly, the years in which parents influence their children have been drastically shortened, as the majority of 16 year olds in our

society are already removing themselves from parental control. Relations with the family exist nonetheless. Because of the longer learning period, however, the process of emancipation operates in different dimensions and at different points in time, further complicating the formation of relationships. According to Mühlhum (1995), this process has become more difficult generally.

At the same time, the questions can be raised whether peer groups are adequate substitutes for the first two socialization agencies (family and school) in dealing with developmental tasks, at what point their limitations emerge, and what recourse is had to youth welfare as a backup. Alongside parents and peer groups, social workers are becoming the mentors of young people in school through readily accessible, voluntary school social work services. In keeping with the systematic nature of social work, staff, parents and other reference persons are involved in the counseling process. School social work is becoming an important source of aid for young people, relied upon if parents are not available, teachers are not confided in, and the peer group shows no readiness to help.

Pilot Project

The data in this paper were gathered from 1997 to 1999, as part of monitoring the pilot project "School social work in extended secondary education (Weiterbildungsschule) in Basle City Canton." The Education and Justice Department of Basle Canton carried out the project in 1997, in Grades 8 and 9 of the extended secondary course, which is compulsory for all students who are not enrolled in the "Gymnasium" (secondary school, where students are primarily preparing for higher education). There were 2460 students between 14 and 16 years old and 350 teachers at 6 locations. Preparation for subsequent training, such as how to write a resume and making a business phone call, is emphasized, as most students go on to apprenticeships after leaving school.

At this type of school, about 70% of the students are from foreign countries (mostly former Yugoslavia, Turkey, and other south-eastern European countries). In this population of 8th and 9th grade students, the number of social problems, such as violence in families, suicide, and bullying in school, which lead to an intervention from the youth welfare, such as accommodation in foreign families and homes, suspension, or expulsion from school, is more than 200 a year. There were 4 school social workers (3.2 full time equivalents) assigned to the 6 schools, providing a ratio of about 1 school social worker for 800 students.

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The monitoring study made in Basel reveals that contact with individual pupils lasts for up to 2 years. In aggregate, the school social work service conducted at least one counseling interview with 18% of all pupils enrolled in extended secondary education in Basle, and, in so doing, had the co-operation of approximately 60% of the entire teaching staff. In about a quarter of cases, after an initial counseling interview, the school social worker contacted another agency, usually teaching staff (in 173 of 772 cases). After the initial interview, in 73 of 772 cases, the persons counseled were referred to other services, including career advice (16 referrals), the school psychology service (15), and youth welfare authorities (13). The results are similar for the subsequent counseling interviews. At this point, it can be noted that school social work operates as an agent of socialization, alongside family, school, and the peer group. The question of how tasks are apportioned among these institutions cannot be answered conclusively at present, and it should not be assumed that one agency becomes a mainstay where another looks unhelpful. Rather, there seems to be something of a network in which parents perform a dominant role (Schröder, 1995).

Problem Areas and Gender Bias in the Counseling Interviews

The three-way pull of socialization, peer group orientation, and the relationship with parents is one of the difficulties that poses challenges for young people in the formation of their identity (Olk, 1999). Interpretation of the empirically derived figures compels a gender-specific view (see Table 2). Reviewing the problem areas that emerge in initial counseling interviews, we find that, for girls, family issues are predominant. Female pupils most often turn to the school social service on account of family conflicts. The second most frequent reason for referral is occupied by school-related problems such as performance expectations. The theme of violence at school or at home occurs almost as frequently. The issues that male students bring to the initial counseling sessions fall mainly under the heading of school and relate to physical violence and school work. Social behavior and job prospects form a second group of concerns.

It is statistically significant that girls talk more than boys about conflicts in the family (CV = 0.12), health problems (CV = 0.15), and self-inflicted injuries (CV = 0.12). Boys are significantly more inclined than girls to emphasize social behavior (CV = 0.18), damage to property (CV = 0.1), and school achievement (CV = 0.1). The obvious conclusion is that girls are more apt than boys to go into details about personal cares

and concerns in many cases that originate in the family or the surrounding community.

Table 2

Number of Initial Counseling Interviews by the School Social Service by Subjects and Target Groups

Problem areas and dimensions	Examples	Number		Cramer's V
		Boys	Girls	
School				
School work	Performance demanded by the school	32	20	0.1*
Emotional violence at school	Bullying, threats, extortion	33	23	ns
Physical violence at school	Fighting in the playground	9	8	ns
Material damage at school	Breaking a window	4	0	0.1*
Conflicts at school with pupils or staff	Problems with fellow-pupils, tension with teachers	10	11	ns
Social behavior of a pupil	Classroom demeanor, difficult pupil	23	5	0.18**
Family and near community				
Violence in the family or the near community	Violence in the family, sexual assaults by relatives, violent father	7	21	0.12*
Conflicts with a boy or girl friend	Differences of opinion, separation, stress in general	2	9	0.1*
Conflicts in the family	Annoyance with parents, financial disputes	8	33	0.21*
The narrowly personal domain				
Health problems	Anorexia, nutritional disorders	2	16	0.15**
Drug-taking	Drugs, alcohol, smoking	8	6	ns
Self-inflicted injury	Attempted suicide, self-mutilation	0	7	0.12**
Job prospects	Search for a training place, conditions of application	21	15	ns

* ($p<0.05$), ** ($p<0.01$), *** ($p<0.001$). CV = Cramer's V; ns = not significant.

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Summary

Because adolescence, conceived as a transition, now affords countless choices in shaping one's own life, it also carries the danger that the personal life project might miscarry. Young people need to develop great flexibility in planning their lives and careers, forging relationships, coping with altered values and norms, and processing information. Consequently, social precautions should be taken to absorb the shock of crises during youth.

The school social work pilot project run by the youth welfare service that is documented in this paper clearly illustrates the hindrances to young people's maturation. The family, the near community, the school, and the students' own personality development confront young men and women with differing demands that not all of them successfully meet. It is, therefore, necessary, alongside family, school, and peer groups as agencies of socialization, to bring in youth welfare workers as school social workers to broaden and strengthen the social network that surrounds these young people.

The developmental tasks formulated by Havighurst (1972) could point the way, as they are directed at finding one's identity and at both personal and social stability for young people. School social work, as an operational field of youth welfare, should set out to formulate the developmental tasks required of young people, in consultation with them, and adapt the tasks to each personal situation and individual possibilities. Young people then would have a source of assistance for problems, which the family and the near community are powerless to ease.

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A PILOT PROJECT FOR SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK IN KOREA

Han In Young and Kim Min Jung

ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the significance and effectiveness of a school social work pilot project carried out in cooperation with the Korean Ministry of Education. The pilot project was designed at a time when school social work had gained poor recognition in Korea. The goal was to verify its effectiveness as a means to solve various adolescent problems found in schools.

By the late 1990s, various adolescent problems increasingly were being found in Korean schools. Growing numbers of students were dropping out and experiencing violence and bullying at school (Han, Hong, Kim, & Kim, 1999). Professionals in youth work and education and the media drew public attention to these problems and to youth maladjustment to school. Youth experts blamed school maladjustment on too much emphasis on test scores, the fast changing youth culture, and family disintegration. School administrators and teachers attempted to address it, but with little success. The reality is that education in Korea is oriented toward college entrance, and, accordingly, the schools place a rigid emphasis on test scores. They also turn a blind eye to the poor emotional state of the students and leave many issues critical to their well-being, such as drop-out, family problems, mental health problems, and emotional disturbance, unaddressed.

It was against this backdrop that social welfare researchers and practitioners started to talk about the need for school social work as a means to solve those problems. In fact, several community social welfare centers had already offered individual or group programs for a selected group of students, such as juvenile delinquents, substance abusers, and students with learning difficulties or maladjustment problems. In addition, a few researchers had shown that social welfare is effective in tackling adolescents' behavioral and other problems (Yu & Han, 1996; Yun, 1995; Han, Lee, & Kim, 1996). Korean schools, in general, however, are disinclined to open doors to outside experts or institutions for help. Thus, it has been very difficult to implement school-based school social work, apart from the kind of social work program that is program-based or focuses on a selected few, as mentioned previously.

This virtually eliminated any opportunity to prove overall effectiveness of school social work to the schools and the education community.

In this context, the Ministry of Education of the Korean Government decided to evaluate school social work as an option to solve numerous problems surrounding schools and students. They selected 4 schools from across the country. The lead author was commissioned to implement a school social work pilot project in one of these schools, the M Girls' High School.

A Thumbnail Sketch of M Girl's High School

M Girls' High School has 1500 students and 45 faculty members. Each of the 3 grades consists of 10 classes and an average of 55 students in each class. The school is located on the boundary between south and north Seoul; south Seoul (*or* '*Kangnam*') is the richer neighborhood. H Girls' High School also serves the same district as M Girls' High School. The 2 schools are the only general girls' high schools in the district – as distinguished from technical or vocational high schools – and they vie for better college entrance records.

More than half of the parents were found to be self-employed, the most common type of business being 'mom-and-pop' stores. Many of them could be classified as having quite a strict code of conduct towards teenagers in this district. For example, teens who enter bars illegally are frequently reported to the police or school by adults living in the community. The socio-economic status of the community is low. However, the community has torn down its slum neighborhoods recently and is reconstructing them with new apartment complexes.

People in and around the district hold M Girls' High School in high regard. It has nurtured a significant number of alumni who are playing leading roles in various sectors of society. However, this is not how the students feel about the school. They complain that the school has maintained poor college entrance records and that, unlike nearby H Girls' High School, it is a public school where teachers transfer every few years, making it much harder to obtain consistent quality education. The school's outdated facilities and unattractive buildings are also a source of their complaints.

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Implementing the School Social Work Project in M Girl's High School

The most pre-eminent goal of this project was to address students' needs and problems, helping them better adjust to the school and nurturing their potential to become fully responsible members of society. By achieving this goal, the project also tried to demonstrate the effectiveness of school social work. The subjects of the project are the students, their teachers, and parents. It was carried out for 2 full years from 1997 to 1998. Throughout the period, one school social worker remained dedicated to the project, having 20 or so assistants comprising doctoral and master level interns and undergraduate interns in social work. The lead author led and supervised the project.

The project consisted of three phases. The first phase was a pre-test stage, where an effort was made to identify M Girls' High School's needs and problems through extensive pre-tests, meetings with the faculty, and discussions among the social workers involved. Based on this effort, the groundwork was laid for effective operation of programs. The second phase was the implementation stage, where various school social work programs were put into action. The programs were designed to enhance school adjustment, facilitate students' search for jobs or academic careers, promote mental health, guide delinquents, and promote and manage volunteering activities. The third phase was an evaluation stage, where the results of the project were evaluated and then reported to the Korean Ministry of Education.

The Significance of the Project

The project was found to be effective in solving problems faced by students and enhancing their welfare, a fact that was verified through numerous rounds of assessment that brought together students, teachers, school administrators, parents, and school social workers. For instance, in a self-report survey for 1039 students in the first and second grades of high school, carried out by the time the project was completed, an impressive 573 students, or 55.1% of the total respondents, said that they had benefited from school social work intervention. Among the respondents, 526 students, or 50.6%, answered that they used the service. All of them responded that the service was beneficial to them. An additional 47 students answered that, even though they did not use the service, they observed the benefit that their peers reaped from the service.

This is a very encouraging response, given the many limitations that faced the project. First, there was only one school social worker (the coauthor) working fulltime with the project. Second, the time available for students to use school social work service was very restricted. Third, most of the students entrusted to school social work service were considered to be problem students, either very hostile or causing great distress to the school authority. Fourth, the school, like any other general high school, is very much oriented to college admission, and, accordingly, a majority of students have a tendency to shun activities unrelated to it. As illustrated in Table 1, the self-report survey demonstrated that the major benefits of school social work were found to be linked with career search, school adjustment, interpersonal relationship, and problem solving.

Table 1
Benefits of School Social Work (Total Number = 573)

Item	Number (Percentage)			
	Very Effective	Somewhat Effective	Non-Effective	No Answer
Self-fulfillment	217(37.9%)	131(22.9%)	144(25.1%)	81(14.1%)
Enhanced self-esteem	175(30.6%)	209(36.5%)	106(18.5%)	83(14.4%)
Emotional stability	114(19.9%)	314(54.8%)	65(11.3%)	80(14.0%)
Stress resolution	91(15.9%)	286(49.9%)	184(32.1%)	12(2.1%)
Problem-solving capability	121(20.1%)	334(58.3%)	80(13.9%)	38(7.7%)
Solving actual problems	237(50.3%)	279(48.7%)	41(7.1%)	16(2.8%)
Managing everyday life	45(7.8%)	398(69.5%)	26(4.6%)	104(18.1%)
Career search	380(66.3%)	127(22.2%)	3(0.5%)	63(11.0%)
Interpersonal relationship	260(45.4%)	121(21.1%)	28(4.9%)	164(28.6%)
School adjustment	276(48.2%)	179(31.2%)	58(10.2%)	60(10.5%)
Sense of fulfillment	211(36.8%)	195(34.0%)	110(19.9%)	57(9.9%)

Teachers and school administrators, who were charged with addressing the behavior of "problem students" in one way or another,

almost unanimously credited school social work with transforming "uncontrollable, recalcitrant and backward students" into "hardworking, promising and O.K. students with their unique personality." School social work offered general service for the entire body of students and also provided intervention programs for those students who were seen as "trouble-making" by the school authority. Those students, who frequently cut classes, violate dress codes, smoke and drink, or disobey teachers, were indeed a great distress to the school authority and were also stigmatized by their peers.

School social work service did not assume that those students to be troublemakers. Rather, it was based on a conscientious effort to acknowledge them just the way they were, and then to address various problems they faced, including psychological, interpersonal, and familial. Programs such as psychodrama, group work, personal counseling, and volunteering are some of the examples that had a positive impact on the students. The programs helped them to restore their relationships with peers and teachers and to solve their own problems. Once they solved problems that had long haunted them, they started not only to show improvement in attendance and the way they dressed but also to become enthusiastic about their future career. The significance of the project, however, goes beyond all of this and leads to the main point of the paper.

Discovery of Mental Health Problems

The project brought to light an issue that had long been ignored. At the initial stage of the project, a needs assessment was carried out to identify basic needs and problems. The subjects included students and teachers. Three classes were randomly chosen from each grade, and 145, 150, and 167 students (total 464) participated in the needs assessment from the first, second, and third grades, respectively. The survey was divided into four categories: the individual, the school, the family, and school social work programs. On the teacher side, 52 participated, and they were asked how they thought students would respond to the survey.

The survey found that the most common problematic behaviors include entering karaoke rooms and bars, drinking, and smoking, as illustrated in Table 2. The result that produced most concern regarding the mental health of the students was that suicidal attempts ranked fifth in the list of problematic behaviors: 9.2% or 43 students answered that they had attempted suicide a couple of times or occasionally.

Table 2
Categorization of Problematic Behavior (Total Number = 464)

Problematic Behavior	Number (Percentage)					Mean	Rank
	Never	1-2	Occasionally	Frequently	No answer		
Karaoke room	35 (7.5)	91 (19.6)	271 (58.4)	63 (13.6)	4 (0.9)	2.881	1
Drinking alcohol	179 (38.6)	166 (35.8)	108 (23.3)	6 (1.3)	5 (1.1)	1.876	2
Bar	360 (77.6)	52 (11.2)	41 (8.8)	2 (0.4)	9 (1.9)	1.310	3
Smoking	397 (85.6)	30 (6.5)	16 (3.4)	12 (2.6)	9 (1.9)	1.220	4
Attempting suicide	414 (89.2)	41 (8.8)	2 (0.4)	-	7 (1.5)	1.098	5
Gang fight	423 (91.2)	35 (7.5)	-	-	6 (1.3)	1.074	6
Absence from school	439 (94.6)	19 (4.1)	1 (0.2)	-	5 (1.1)	1.046	7
Sex	444 (95.7)	9 (1.9)	4 (0.9)	1 (0.2)	6 (1.3)	1.044	8

Poor mental health among students also was manifested by a different question that asked students how frequently they experienced each mental health problem. To this question, students answered that they experienced test anxiety, depression, low self-esteem, bulimia, and anxiety (see Table 3). Given that high school education is very much focused on college entrance, the high frequency of test anxiety was not surprising. What was unexpected was that 24.6% (114 students) said that they were experiencing depression, and 18.9% (88 students) said that they were experiencing bulimia, at least occasionally. Theft, runaway, substance abuse, sexual assault, and entering a gang were also mentioned by smaller numbers.

Table 3
Categorization of Mental Health Problems (Total Number = 464)

Mental Health Problem	Number (Percentage)					Mean	Rank
	Never	Seldom	Occasion-ally	Fre-quently	Always		
Test anxiety	62 (13.4)	126 (27.2)	126 (27.2)	70 (15.1)	74 (15.9)	2.924	1
Depression	14 (3.0)	136 (29.3)	194 (41.8)	102 (22.0)	12 (2.6)	2.917	2
Low self-esteem	74 (15.9)	154 (33.2)	139 (30.0)	75 (16.2)	16 (3.4)	2.574	3
Bulimia	140 (30.2)	121 (26.1)	109 (23.5)	72 (15.5)	16 (3.4)	2.352	4
Anxiety	162 (34.9)	160 (34.5)	82 (17.7)	44 (9.5)	10 (2.2)	2.083	5
Aggressive-ness	149 (32.1)	184 (39.7)	86 (18.5)	34 (7.3)	4 (0.9)	2.037	6
Poor sociability	183 (39.4)	139 (30.0)	98 (21.1)	29 (6.3)	8 (1.7)	1.993	7
Social phobia	207 (44.6)	145 (31.3)	83 (17.9)	21 (4.5)	2 (0.4)	1.834	8
School phobia	252 (54.3)	118 (25.4)	61 (13.1)	15 (3.2)	13 (2.8)	1.734	9
Obsession	335 (72.2)	65 (14.0)	36 (7.8)	9 (1.9)	13 (2.8)	1.472	10
Halluci-nations	351 (75.6)	67 (14.4)	29 (6.3)	10 (2.2)	1 (0.2)	1.347	11
Others	10 (2.2)	1 (0.2)	1 (0.2)	8 (1.7)	5 (1.1)		

- "No answer" category was omitted from the table.

There was a significant gap between how students actually responded to the question and how teachers thought students would respond. While teachers understood many of students' concerns, such as test anxiety and low self-esteem, they failed to recognize the presence of depression and eating disorders among students (see Table 4).

Table 4
Severity of Mental Health Problems Among Students in the Eyes of Teachers (Total Number = 52)

Mental Health Problem	Rank 1	Rank 2	Rank 3	Score	Weighted score	Rank
Test anxiety	19 (36.5)	11 (21.2)	8 (15.4)	38	87	1
Low self-esteem	10 (19.2)	8 (15.4)	5 (9.6)	23	51	2
Poor sociability	7 (13.5)	4 (7.7)	17 (32.7)	28	45	3
Anxiety	2 (3.8)	12 (23.1)	7 (13.5)	21	37	4
Depression	7 (13.5)	3 (5.8)	4 (7.7)	14	31	5
Obsession	2 (3.8)	5 (9.6)	4 (7.7)	11	20	6
School phobia	2 (3.8)	3 (5.8)	-	5	12	7
Anger, aggressiveness	2 (3.8)	2 (3.8)	1 (1.9)	5	11	8
Hallucination	-	2 (3.8)	1 (1.9)	3	5	9
Social phobia	-	1 (1.9)	-	1	2	10

To further look into the mental health issue, a mental health survey was carried out using standard scales. A total of 991 students from the first and second grades participated in the survey. The standard scales used were Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) and Eating Disorder Index (EDI). Trauma Symptom Checklist (TSC) and questions on family relations and physical appearance were also included. The result of the survey was subjected to frequency analysis.

Table 5
Depression and Eating Disorder (Total Number = 991)

Item	Number	Percentage (%)
BDI		
No depression	333	33.7%
Mild depression	308	31.0%
Moderate depression	214	23.4%
Severe depression	129	10.95%
Mean	15.47	
EDI		
Problem in eating	89	9.7%
No problem in eating	898	89.9%

- "No answer" category was omitted from the table.

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The BDI divides the levels of severity into four, according to standard grades. As shown above, students who are not depressed make up only 37% of the total. The number of students suffering depression was high, and those with severe depression were considered to be excessive. The EDI showed that most of the interviewees did not have any problems associated with eating disorder; however, 89 students, not a negligible portion of the total, did reveal problems associated with eating. Treatment of, or services involving behavioral problems, can be provided relatively quickly, because behavior problems are mostly discernable. Mental problems, however, do not speak for themselves. Those with mental problems need to talk about them. Mental problems tend not to be noticed if students are not willing to talk about their feelings.

We need to observe students closely based on fundamental knowledge of emotional or mental health problems. Depression, in particular, often goes unnoticed. In countries such as Korea, where inactive and introvert behaviors rather than proactive expression of oneself that have been considered a virtue of women for a long time, it is highly possible that female students with problems of depression are viewed as merely shy, introverted, and reserved people and are not given enough attention. Mental health problems may affect school work or personal relationships, lead to anorexia or bulimia, thus raising the level of stress, and may create a vicious cycle that makes the mental health problem of depression even more serious (Korean Youth Counseling Institute, 1993). The problem of depression in students requires particular attention and cautious treatment.

The results of this study were presented in teacher training sessions. The results surprised both teachers and administrators. Most of the faculty responded that they expected a certain level of stress associated with university entrance, but not depression. Some of them acknowledged that they had failed to recognize that the issue of mental health should be viewed seriously and dealt with in the school setting. It was recognized that school social work projects were needed.

The issue of students' mental health was found to be highly significant in this pilot project. It was this recognition that made us focus on programs that solve and prevent problems associated with mental health, as well as other general programs that are designed to help students grow mentally and adapt to school lives. The school social work programs provided in these efforts are as follows:

1. Mental problem prevention education: A prevention education was conducted on three occasions for all students. Psychiatrists, school social workers, and the lead author provided general information necessary to understand and maintain mental health and educated the

students on the significance of mental disorder, adolescent depression, eating disorders, and the importance of peer counseling.

2. Discovering and managing students with eating problems: Interviews and surveys were conducted on students found to have problems in eating behaviors through mental health examination using the EAT (Eating Attitude Test) standard that helps examine more closely the pattern of eating behaviors and contributing factors. For those found to have problems in this test, help was provided in terms of consultations with professional counselors and examinations pertaining to eating behaviors. Follow-up continued on a regular basis.
3. Case studies on students with mental health problems: Through coordination with class teachers, people with a master's degree in social work were allocated as part-time unpaid volunteers and instructed to check the social functioning of those with mental health problems on a weekly basis and to report the results to the project supervisor. As for those students whose replies indicated a very serious symptom of depression, more information was gathered on the level of depression and its contributing factors through counseling. Additional individual counseling was conducted, and efforts were made to entrust those with very serious problems to other institutions.
4. A school adjustment support program offered to students transferring from another school or those who took one or more years off: Through close coordination with the student management department and future course counseling department, counseling was continued to those students who were transferred from another school, took one or more years off, or re-enrolled, until they successfully adjusted to their school lives.
5. Group program for mental health: Those students who exhibited minor problems in mental health were provided with a group program for mental health in extracurricular activity classes. Throughout the classes, students were able to have peer counseling by sharing their own problems and encouraging each other.

Conclusion

Though only 1 year was available for the implementation stage in the 2-year timeframe of the project and the project had few precedents it could refer to in Korea, its effectiveness became self-evident. Even after the entire project was completed, the school made numerous requests

for continued professional school social work services. More importantly, the project helped to trigger a larger interest in school social work among different stakeholders. Almost concurrently with the project, another school social work project was initiated under the auspices of the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education. Both proved that it was very effective in addressing various problems faced by students, ushering in growing trends toward school social work.

First, doctoral and master level theses on school social work used to be almost non-existent in Korea; however, their numbers soared starting from the years 1997 and 1998. Second, increasing numbers of schools have indicated a positive attitude towards school social work by implementing school social work projects and later on by hiring in-school social workers or resorting to community-based school social work service. As of March 2002, 12 schools were found to employ school social workers, and 330 or so community welfare centers spread across the nation were providing various children and youth services for their neighboring schools. In addition, school social work practitioners recently formed a group called the Korean Association of School Social Work Practitioners, which has over 80 active members and has become an affiliate of the Korean Association of Social Workers (KASW) in February 2002. It should be noted that all of the school social workers are hired on soft money contracts of irregular employment, and school social work has no legal mandate. The authors believe, even though school social work in Korea has leapfrogged over the past 10 years, a systemic set of policies are needed to develop school social work into an integral part of school life in Korea.

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THE IMPACT OF FAMILY STRUCTURE AND FAMILY FUNCTION FACTORS ON THE DEVIANT BEHAVIORS OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN MECCA CITY, SAUDI ARABIA

Mohammed M. Al-Garni

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore and describe the family structure and family function factors that increase the likelihood of deviant behaviors of male high school students in Mecca City, Saudi Arabia. The data obtained was analyzed, and findings show that family size, parent-child attachment, sponsorship, and parent's level of education are the most prominent predictors of deviant behaviors, school truancy, and academic performance of high school students. Specific research findings are presented, and future research studies are suggested.

The relationships between family factors and deviance have been highlighted in the Western literature. The structure versus function controversy of the family system, however, has been one of the important and continuing debates in the relationship between family and deviance. Family size, socialization, child rearing, divorce, parent-child relationships, social class, and housing conditions are among those factors that correlate with deviant behaviors (Angenent & de Man 1996; Bartollas, 2000; Furlong, 1985; Hirschi & Gottfredson, 1994; Nye, 1958; Thornton & Voigt, 1992). Although biological and personal factors are strongly correlated with deviance, this study focused on family factors, both structural and functional, that strengthen the existence of deviant behaviors among high school students.

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, established in 1932, occupies about four-fifths of the Arabian Peninsula. It covers approximately 865,000 square miles, about one-third the size of the continental United States. The economy is based largely on the country's oil reserves. During the last census, which was held in 1992, the population of Saudi Arabia was estimated at about 17 million; 4 million were legal residents and 13 million were Saudi citizens. In addition, a significant number of people visit the country to perform the required Muslim pilgrimage to Mecca. Although a quarter of the country's population is composed of

non-Saudi nationals and this may have an impact on students' deviancy, this study included only Saudi nationals.

In the Saudi Arabian community, as in the rest of the Arabian Gulf States, the family system is characterized by close ties and obligations to the extended family. The family unit is the source of identity and security for each individual (Al-Sweel, 1993). In addition, the family is headed by males. The role and position of individuals in this type of structure are defined according to the individual's sex and age.

Saudi society has experienced rapid social and economic changes in recent years, and adolescents have been the most vulnerable segment of the population influenced by these changes. School truancy, academic failure, and verbal and physical deviant acts are some of the behaviors that have increased along with social change. The study of youth deviancy is important, because principals, teachers, counselors, and social workers now must deal with these behaviors.

The Ministry of Education has the overall responsibility for educational policy, curriculum construction, and organization of boys' education below the university level; girls' education follows a different system. High schools in Saudi Arabia provide a 3-year program. Students enroll in high school after they pass a national examination at the end of the third year of the intermediate school. During the first year of high school, a common course is followed by all students. From the second year on, the students choose either a science or a literature program. All academic subjects in high school are required and there are no electives. Students are expected to receive a passing grade in each subject before moving on to the next grade. If a student fails in half or less of the subjects, he has another chance to pass those subjects before the following academic year. If he fails again, the entire year must be repeated a second time. A national examination is also held at the end of the third year of high school to determine whether the student will be able to achieve a high school diploma.

School counseling in the Saudi Educational System was started in 1981, by the Act of Establishing the Administration of Student Counseling and Guidance. No distinction exists between school counseling and school social work. The title of the role translates as "social specialist." The requirement for the position is a bachelor's degree in social work, sociology, or psychology. The main purpose was to provide professional counseling services in school settings. The student counseling was defined as a "constructive process aiming to help the student to understand himself, his personality, and his experiences; to identify his problems and develop his capacities; and to reach his goals in congruence with Islamic foundations" (Education, 1999). This definition has made students the target of

services and did not link other educational components, such as school atmosphere and home/school communication.

Family as a social system has been defined extensively in the literature. In his book titled *Family and Community Functioning*, Ludwig L. Geismar (1980) has defined family as a group of two or more people, including at least one parent or parent substitute and one dependent child, related by blood, marriage, or adoption. The group is held together by moral, social, and legal rights and obligations, and carries out socially expected functions that include the socialization of children and the provision of love, security, food, clothing, and shelter to all its members. Family is a social system that denotes (1) structural units that identify the type of family and (2) definable relationships when these units interact with one another (Geismar, 1980).

This study explores the impact of family structure and family function factors that increase deviant behaviors of high school students in Mecca City, Saudi Arabia. Although most societies see the concept of deviance as going against the community's rules and regulations, the forms of deviance vary from one community to another. While some communities extend deviant behaviors to include religious extremism, drug abuse, and any behavior that departs from society's norms, other communities restrict the concept of deviance to refer to major threatening acts like murder and rape. Since this study will not cover all forms of deviant behaviors, deviance is defined as school truancy, academic failure, and unacceptable verbal or physical acts that lie outside of conventional norms and customs. The study focused on boys, due to the cultural and religious limitations in the community where the study was conducted.

Literature Review

Deviant adolescent behavior is one of the most researched topics in studies on adolescence in Western societies. This topic, however, has not received research attention in Asian societies. Both the cultural differences between Asia and the West and the rapid social and economic changes that have occurred in many Asian societies in the past several decades provide valuable opportunities for theories of adolescent deviant behavior, developed in the West, and need to be tested (Cheung, 1997).

A number of delinquency theories look at the role of family factors in facilitating or preventing adolescent deviance (Nye, 1958). Family size, birth order, parenting, parent's marital status, and parent-

child attachment are significant family factors in adolescent deviance (Hirschi, 1983). In Hirschi's version of control theory, which has received a lot of support from empirical findings (Akers, 1997; DuRant, Cadenhead, Pendergrast, Slavens, & Linder, 1994; Wiatrowski, Griswold, & Roberts, 1981), "attachment to others" is an essential factor relating to deviant behavior. An adolescent who is strongly attached to others would try his/her best not to be involved in deviant behavior, because he/she would not want to embarrass or hurt the feelings of the people to whom he/she is attached. The most important category of "others" for attachment is parents (Hirschi, 1983). It is concluded that deviance is a social act, from the very inception of the norms that govern deviants, to the social institutions that affect deviants, the environment in which the deviants live, the socialization to which they are subjected, and the process whereby their actions are judged by others as conforming or deviant (Bynum & Thompson, 1999).

In Saudi Arabia, the family system has been a target of rapid social and economic changes within the last 2 decades, especially after the "oil production" era. The family system was subjected to extensive changes and social disorganization through the process of modernization. In Saudi Arabia, where people are strongly tied to Islamic conventions, the social relationships between family members are governed by deference and respect. Thus, a very strong bond between parents and children is expected. In this kind of relationship, the parent-child relationship is said to be authoritarian and asymmetrical. The parents are the ones who command and order, and the children are the ones who obey and follow. Empirical findings have shown a continuous increase in the number of juvenile delinquency cases in Saudi Arabia (Alshuwaiman, 1990). Fighting, school drop-out, academic failure, and smoking are among the deviant behaviors that school counselors and social workers encounter in working with adolescents.

Methodology

This is a descriptive study intended to explore and describe the correlations between family factors, both structural and functional, and deviant behaviors of high school students in Mecca City, Saudi Arabia. The selected family factors included family size, birth order, parenting, family income, parents' marital status, parent-child relationship, family

type, sponsorship (source of financial support), parents' education, and parents' work.

Family size, birth order, parenting, parents' marital status, parents' education, family type, and parent-child relationship increasingly have been shown to correlate with deviant behavior (Angenent & de Man, 1996; Bynum & Thompson, 1999; Cheung, 1997; DuRant et al., 1994; Emler & Reicher, 1995; Farrington, 1980; Flewelling & Bauman, 1990; Furlong, 1985; Gibbons & Krohn, 1986; Jejurikar & Shenvi, 1985; Jibrin, 1994; Nye, 1958). The impact, however, of family factors on deviant behaviors in Islamic societites, such as Saudi Arabia, has not not been well researched. Although the phenomenon of deviance exists in all human communities, the nature of it varies from culture to culture based on the sum of values, norms, and laws existing in each community.

The self-administered questionnaire used in this study was designed to measure studied variables. The content validity, which refers to the degree to which a measure covers the range of meanings included within the concept (Rubin & Babbie, 1997) of this questionnaire, was assessed by the researcher's advisory committee for the English version and by faculty members of the Social Work Department, Umm Al-Qura University, after the translation process, because it was to be administered to subjects whose native tongue is Arabic. For reliability, Cronbach's Coefficient alpha was calculated for the questionnaire, yielding .93.

Eight high schools were selected based on the geographic location and socioeconomic level. The criteria used for the selection of the high schools were as follows: (1) the location of the high school, which is considered an important factor of sampling representativeness, and (2) the socioeconomic status of families, which is based on the continuity of the socioeconomic level. In this regard, Mecca City was divided into five regions: north, south, east, west, and center. Eight high schools were selected from five regions. Thus, the eight selected high schools represented adequately the diversity of the high school population.

A sample of convenience was used, because it met the needs of this study. It yielded 346 high school students; 178 high school students were sampled in the deviant group based on the reports of school counselors/school social workers, and 168 high school students in the nondeviant group were sampled randomly from student body in the selected eight high schools. The reporting of school counselors/ school social workers was based on whether or not the students had committed deviant behaviors during the first half of the 2000 academic year. The criteria used by school counselors/social workers to assess

students as "deviant" included smoking, fighting, cheating, stealing, and misconduct.

The parents/guardians of sampled subjects were sent informed consent forms to obtain their permission. Informed consent guaranteed that they were informed about the purpose of the study, the kind of data being sought, and the confidentiality of the data. The study reported that there were no parents' objections to having their children included in the survey. This is not a surprising response rate in Saudi Arabia. The collected data were analyzed statistically by the SPSS program (*Statistical Package of Social Sciences*, version 10.0). Descriptive and inferential statistical methods were used to describe responses and to answer research questions.

Results

The findings of this study have shown that the age ranged from 15 years old to 23 years old (Mean = 17.8; St. Deviation = 1.55). This is common in the Saudi educational system, because there is no age limit for students being in high school. The majority of the respondents (87.9%) live with their biological parents. Almost 80% of the respondents live in families with 7 members and above; about 58% of the respondents fall in the middle birth order; and almost 59% of the respondents' families have low monthly incomes (5000 Riyal or less = $1333.33). Fathers (90.5%) are the main source of income, because the traditional role of men is dominated in the Saudi Arabian community where this study was conducted; and 89% of the respondents' parents were married.

To examine the relationship between independent and dependent variables, correlation coefficients were computed. Two types of independent variables were noted: 1) continuous independent variables, which include family size, parent-child attachment, and monthly income, and 2) categorical independent variables, which include parenting, birth order, marital status, parents' education, parents' work, and family type. Biserial product moment correlation (Pearson) coefficient was used when both variables were continuous variables. Categorical variables were analyzed by using t-test or analysis of variance (ANOVA), according to the number of categories in each variable.

Table 1
T-test of Dichotomous Family Factors

Independent variable	Dependent variables					
	Deviant acts		School truancy		Academic performance	
	t	Sig.	t	Sig.	t	Sig.
Family type	.05	n.s.	.76	n.s.	-.402	n.s.
Father's work	-.92	n.s.	-.83	n.s.	1.21	n.s.
Mother's work	-1.17	n.s.	1.47	n.s.	.63	n.s.
Group	16.89	**	14.87	**	17.70	**

** Significant $\alpha \leq .05$

Table 2
Analysis of Variance Between Dependent Variables and Multichotomous Family Factors

Independent variables	Dependent variables					
	Deviant acts		School truancy		Academic. performance	
	F	Sig.	F	Sig.	F	Sig.
Birth order	1.499	n.s. *	.847	n.s.	.314	n.s.
Parenting	.833	n.s.	1.911	n.s.	.694	n.s.
Father's education	2.717	**	.858	n.s.	2.474	**
Mother's education	3.722	**	2.854	**	2.502	**
Marital status	1.441	n.s.	3.319	**	.136	n.s.

* n.s. = not significant ** Significant $\alpha \leq .05$

The findings in Tables 1 and 2 show that there are significant differences between the means of independent variables of father's education, mother's education, whether the student is in the deviant group or in the nondeviant group, and marital status. In contrast, the means of independent variables of birth order, parenting, father's work, mother's work, and family type were not significant at alpha level .05. This means that high school students whose parents are more educated

are less likely to be involved in deviant behavior, have low rate of school truancy, and have have high academic performance.

Table 3 indicates that family size correlated positively with deviant acts (r = .40), negatively with academic performance (r = -.40), and positively with school truancy (r = .28). High school students who belong to large families were more likely to be involved in deviant acts, had a high rate of school truancy, and had a low academic performance. In addition, the parent-child attachment was associated negatively with deviant acts (r = -.22), positively with academic performance (r = .21), and negatively with school truancy (r = -.22). It is noted that high school students who have strong parent-child attachments were more likely not to be involved in deviant acts, had low rate of school truancy, and achieved high academic performance.

To investigate which of the independent variables are most highly correlated with dependent variables, multiple regressions, the stepwise method, was computed. Since the research has three dependent variables, deviant acts, school truancy, and academic performance, multiple regressions was used three times. The first multiple regression was computed when the family factors were regressed to deviant acts. The second multiple regression was computed when family factors were regressed to school truancy. Finally, multiple regressions was computed when family factors were regressed to academic performance.

Table 3
Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Continuous Family Factors and Dependent Variables

	Family size	Monthly income	Parent-child attachment	School truancy	Academic performance	Deviant acts
Family size	1.000					
Monthly income	-.12*	1.000				
Parent-child attachment	-.05	.01	1.000			
School truancy	.28**	-.05	-.22**	1.000		
Academic performance	-.40**	.12 *	.21**	-.45**	1.000	
Deviant acts	.40**	-.10	-.22**	.32**	-.50**	1.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In the first stepwise multiple regression, 12 family factors (independent variables) were regressed to deviant acts (dependent variables). In this analysis, three (3) significant variables were identified and accounted for 22% of the explained variance. These variables were family size, parent-child attachment (PAQ), and the mother's education. So, high school students who belong to large families, have mothers with a low level of education, and who have weak parent-child relationships, are more likely to become involved in deviant acts. Parenting, birth order, parents' marital status, and income are not associated with deviant acts. Stepwise multiple regressions indicated that family size accounted for 16.4% of the total explained variance, 1.6% for mother education, and 4% for Parent-child attachment.

On the school truancy (second dependent variable), 16% of the variance was accounted for. Twelve (12) independent variables were regressed on school truancy. Three independent variables emerged as significant. These independent variables were family size, parent-child attachment, and sponsorship. The stepwise method indicated that family size accounted for 8%, sponsorship accounted for 4% of explained variance, and parent-child attachment for accounted for 4%. So, students who belong to large families, who have weak parent-child attachment, and who are not sponsored by their fathers are more likely to have a high rate of school truancy. Other family factors (independent variables) such as birth order, marital status, family income, family type, parents' education, and parents' work were not associated with the school truancy variable.

On the academic performance variable (the third dependent variable), 12 family factors were regressed to indicate the effect of family factors on the level of academic performance. There was a 20% of variance accounted for in this dependent variable. Three independent variables were significant–family size with 16%, parent-child attachment with 3%, and father's education with 1% of explained variance. The other family factors were not associated with the level of academic performance.

To examine whether or not the two groups (deviant and non-deviant) differed based on the effect of independent variables, two-group discriminant analysis was computed. A stepwise procedure was used to identify whether or not the means of the two groups differ among the 12 independent variables. Wilk's Lambda was used for the stepwise procedure: the smallest value of Wilk's Lambda (the largest F statistic) entered the model first.

Table 4 shows that there is only one discriminant function accounting for 100% of the total variance with the largest Eigenvalue (.30) and the largest canonical correlation (.48).

Table 4

Summary of Discriminant Analysis
Discriminant Function 1

Variables	b	s	Group Centroid	
Family size	.84	.82	deviant	.53
Parent-child attachment	-.39	-.38	nondeviant	-.56
Mother education	-.31	-.43		
Sponsorship	.27	.12		

Eigenvalue	Rc	Wilk's Lambda	p
.301	.48	.77	< .05

b = standardized discriminant function coefficient
s = within-group structure coefficient
Rc = canonical correlation coefficient

Discussion

In regard to the family structure factors and their influence on deviant behaviors, descriptive findings demonstrated that large family size is the most significant family structure factor that increases the likelihood of deviant behavior among high school students. Generally, families composed of 6 and above are considered large families in Saudi Arabia. Although the average woman in Saudi Arabia has 6.3 children (2000 estimate), the tendency toward having large families in the Saudi society has its roots in the religion of Islam. There are three explanations for this tendency: 1) Islamic conventions urge people to have many children. The fathers view children as a source of displaying manhood and self identity; 2) Polygamy (i.e. marrying more than one wife but less than five) is permissible for Muslims; and 3) Large families are viewed as a source of power and physical support in tribes, which pertains to the Saudi community, since it consists of a collection of tribes.

This finding, the correlation between large family size and deviant behavior, corresponds with research findings in Western societies in which larger families have more delinquency than smaller families do (Bartollas, 2000). Hirschi (1994) explained the higher rate of delinquency with middle children as the result of family size rather

than birth position. Angenent and de Man (1996) found that the association between large family size and deviance results from the ratio between the child and the material benefits the child receives. They claim that in larger families, children receive fewer material benefits than their counterparts in smaller families. While this perspective is pragmatic in nature, it relies on the socioeconomic level, which varies from one family to another based on the ratio between income and expenses.

In this study, birth order did not seem to be a predictor for the deviant behavior of high school students. In the Saudi society where this study was conducted, religious beliefs, which encompass the society's value system, guide and direct social behaviors. Parents are encouraged to raise their children equally. The ordinal position that a child occupies in a family, therefore, has not been shown to have an effect on the possibility of being involved in deviant behavior.

The finding of the parenting variable in this study is not a surprising finding in the context of the present family in Saudi Arabia. Although the family system has been subject to changes through the last 2 decades, due to the increase in industrial growth and modernization, the divorce rate is still minimal. In addition, marriage is the only legal relationship between both sexes. Other male-female relationships are subject to penalties under Islamic laws and regulations. The finding of this study did not reveal the association between family income and dependent variables (deviant behaviors and school truancy). There was a small significant association, however, between family income and academic performance ($r = .121$, $p \leq .05$).

The association between parent-child attachment and the three main dependent variables (deviant acts, school truancy, and academic performance) reveals significant correlations (Table 3). This finding corresponds with research findings (Angenent & de Man, 1996; Furlong, 1985; Nye, 1958; Thornton & Voigt, 1992). Negative relationships have a significant influence on children's behaviors. The findings of Nye (1958) and Bandura (1977) concluded that the combinations of parent-child acceptance and rejection–had similar effects on children's deviant behavior.

In Saudi society, this finding is not surprising, because adolescents are subject to strong social control from their families. The virtue of filial piety dictates that children are obliged to show deference and respect toward their parents. In addition, the family relationships are shaped with strong cohesion among family members. Thus, a strong bond between parents and children is expected. This conclusion coincides with the social bond theory of Travis Hirschi (Hirschi, 1983; Hirschi & Gottfredson, 1994). Hirschi emphasizes that attachment to

parents and parental supervision are important in controlling deviance and maintaining conformity.

The findings have shown that family size, parent-child attachment, and parents' education were the most significant predictors of deviant behaviors (22% of the variance was explained), school truancy (16% of the variance was explained), and academic performance (20% of the variance was explained) of high school students. Thus, high school students who are in large families, who have weak parent-child relationships, and whose parents have a low level of education are more likely to be involved in deviant behaviors, have high rates of school truancy, and have low academic performance. Other family factors, parents' marital status, birth order, parenting, and mother 's working, were not significant predictors of deviant behaviors.

Implications

School social work practice in developing countries is challenging due to the lack of physical and human resources. The findings of the current study may provide a valuable opportunity for school social workers and practitioners to improve their activities in three areas: 1) This study provides information for them in terms of understanding the etiology of deviance among high school students and, furthermore, the family factors that may increase the likelihood of its existence; 2) This study provides information to school social workers about the most significant predictors of deviant behaviors. Although they have no impact to control some predictors such as family size and fathers' employment, social workers can play an important role in community awareness; 3) The findings of the research undertaken may contribute to school social workers' understanding of counseling approaches, both with adolescents and families, that facilitate the implementation of different theoretical explanations of deviance in practice. Because these counseling approaches were designed and developed in western societies, testing and adapting these approaches in less industrialized societies are highly needed.

Since this study was focused on high school boys, parallel studies among high school girls may be valuable in showing gender differences, if any. In addition, future research may be directed to investigate the impact of number of siblings, sibling rivalry, and child-rearing practices on deviant behaviors. Future studies are needed to investigate the association between family factors and deviant

behaviors from the parents' point of view, especially in Asian societies, where the parenting style is characterized by authority.

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SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK IN INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT: TWO COLLEAGUES LEARN FROM EACH OTHER

Marianne Pennekamp and Heidi Pörschke

ABSTRACT

This paper documents the mutual learning of two social workers, one trained and working in the United States, the other in the former East Germany. The key theme is that school social workers in the United States, as well as social workers in Children and Youth fields, can benefit from the German community-centered social work described in this paper, while German colleagues can benefit from learning to use the full range of voluntary services.

I, Marianne Pennekamp, met Heidi Pörschke in 1994, at a workshop put on by the Schools Partnership Training Institute in San Francisco, California. I was one of the presenters. When participants introduced themselves, I noticed the heavy German accent of one of them. Let me hasten to add that, after more than 60 years in this country, I still have an accent that reveals my German roots. My German is fluent and includes some familiarity with German social work concepts and the professional social work culture. So, during the first break, I introduced myself to Heidi. She told me she was the first social worker from former East Germany to receive a grant from the Cleveland International Program to study child welfare, youth, and family work here and bring back her experiences to her colleagues. During the workshop, we asked local social workers in attendance to invite her to their sites, so that she could get started on her work. Many responded. Heidi's 4 months of study were coordinated locally through an institute located at San Francisco State University.

Through this process, Heidi met other international exchange professionals. Heidi and I, though then living 300 miles apart in California, kept in contact during her stay in the San Francisco Bay Area. We met at my home in northern California for further discussions and to prepare a presentation of her experiences to her newfound colleagues at San Francisco State University. In spring of 2001, I finally was able to accept her invitation to visit her in her hometown of Rostock, in the State of Mecklenburg/Vorpommern, one of the new

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Länder (States) of reunified Germany, and to experience an exchange of ideas with her colleagues. This paper documents what we learned from each other.

Heidi Introduces Herself

I was educated as a special educator and obtained my degree in 1980, at the Martin Luther University in Halle, then in East Germany. I worked for 18 years in an educational complex serving children 6 to 18 years old, who were severely handicapped. During 8 of those years, I also taught at the University of Rostock, preparing teachers for the special education system. In 1988, I changed positions and went to work in the Department of Youth Services in Rostock County. During 1988-89, I undertook a specialized study of Youth Work at the Institute for Youth Services in Falkensee, site of a regional training center. Access to this training was only available to those with prior training and experience in education or child /youth development.

It is important for the United States reader to understand a German concept basic to both education and social work called *Sozialpedagogik*, which translates as Social Education. In several European countries, the fields of education, special education, child and youth development, and social work share many core concepts and build on each other's academic preparation programs. In Germany, school social work can build on a variety of points of origin from these disciplines and has, therefore, a different developmental history than school social work in the United States. The present paper does not fully document the current picture of school social work (*Schulsozialarbeit*) in Germany, but only the version described below, which I shared with Marianne during her visit.

In the former Deutsche Demokratische Republik (East Germany), there were only two programs for professional social work training: one at the post graduate Teacher Institute at Falkensee, and the other one (the only one which granted a Master's Degree equivalent to the MSW after 2 years of study) at the Humboldt University in East Berlin. Since the reunification of East and West Germany, professional social work training now follows the pattern established in West Germany, after the end of the Nazi era in 1945.

The Structure of Youth Work That I Practiced Before the "Wende" (the Change-Over)

Before East and West Germany were reunified in the fall of 1989, all youth work in East Germany was under the auspices of national, state, county, and local bodies responsible for Youth Welfare. I worked for the county. My work consisted of the following:

- Assistance with child rearing in difficult situations, such as endangerment to health and child welfare (child neglect);
- Assistance with child custody decisions in cases of divorce;
- Guardianship in cases of temporary foster care, pending adoption. Note that foster care was only used in these "pending adoption" circumstances. All other out of home care was institutional care. (See below).
- Legal protection of children in out-of-wedlock situations, for instance, instituting the search for the father. This establishment of paternal responsibility for their children also applied to fathers following divorce and when fathers were in jail. Fathers were held liable for their children's support in all these situations.
- Management of the situation of children unable to live with their own families and their placement in children's residential settings. In 1989, there were 602 institutions with 35,000 beds in all of East Germany for children not up for adoption but needing out-of-home care (Mannschatz, 1994).

In addition to these specific tasks, my youth welfare work included providing a well coordinated and comprehensive service delivery system, using the resources available under the Communist regime. For me, this meant playing a leadership role in the local Youth Welfare Commission, which involved all local stakeholders in children's and youths' lives, coordinating those efforts and resources. Workers from education, youth recreation, child care, and health care met regularly. Much of this work was carried out on a volunteer basis after working hours, when the leaders met together to coordinate programs and to maximize the outcomes of the work of each of the service providers in this total community context. While volunteer, this effort at coordination was the expected norm, based on a sense of responsibility to the local community.

In the whole DDR, there were only 1300 personnel leading local commissions. This meant that this group of leaders could easily be trained and their communities influenced through them. Basically, the whole community was involved in rearing its children.

To understand the context of this community-coordinated way of working, it is important to know that family, child, and youth support was a key feature of community life under the Communist regime. For instance, all families had access to health care, subsidized housing, employment, education, transition to the world of work (through, among others, apprenticeships and technical education), child care, abortion on demand, and community-based recreation. In addition, they had access to the kinds of family supports for high risk families and youth which was part of the function of youth welfare workers like me. This gave considerable coherence to the life of communities. The negative side of this picture was the dominance of the service systems by the Communist bureaucracies and the lack of individualized, flexible responses to identified needs. After reunification, when many of these resources were no longer available as entitlements, communities had to learn new ways of meeting their families' needs. This process continues to date. The following section will discuss how the transition took place.

After the Wall Came Down: "Die Wende"

From November 1989, to October 1990, the whole system was in transition, read "turmoil," as the old system was dismantled immediately, and many workers, including social workers and youth workers, lost their jobs. By 1991, this work was being reconstituted along the lines of the new Youth Welfare and Youth Services Act (Kinder und Jugendhilfegesetz) adopted by the German Government in October 1990. The coincidence of the passage of this legislation with the reorganization of human services in the former DDR opened a window of opportunity toward a unified system of youth care nationally.

The Youth Welfare and Youth Services Act covers all aspects of work relating to the needs of young people, including youth development, child protection, family support services, child care, and transition for young people to the world of work and adulthood. Due to their communal orientation under the Communist regime, former East German social workers were able to assume a leadership role in the implementation of this new national legislation, an important morale building step after the huge changes brought about by reunification.

The idea of voluntary programs for youth and families was new for social workers in former East Germany. These include services

by church denominations and by private health/mental health service providers, among others. It remains to be seen how the voluntary agency programs will be accepted over time and be useful to the local population. The formerly bureaucratically imposed child and youth social work services will now have to be presented as voluntary options and choices, for the most part. Youth/social work staff will have to acquire new skills in motivating reluctant clients, an especially hard task with alienated youth and families impacted by alcohol and other drug abuse.

The current issues of society, which provide the contexts for individual problems, are the high rate of unemployment of the parents, an average of 16% in the former East German States, in a society that did not know any unemployment in the Communist past; and the lack of a sense of direction among young persons in the face of an uncertain future *vis a vis* the world of work and adult living. Alcohol is the drug of choice and alcoholism is a major concern.

Marianne Introduces Herself

I am a semi-retired social worker and school social work faculty member. I still teach occasionally, keep up and work with school social work through active membership in the NASW California School Social Work Council, and participate with other faculty in the School Social Work Credentials Program policy discussions. Nationally, I contribute to the school social work literature. Locally, in Humboldt County, Northern California, I am very active as a volunteer in community development efforts focused on children, youth, families, and communities. Issues of access to services, especially before concerns have escalated into a crisis, are central to this work, as are youth development and family strength-based outreach efforts.

For 25 years, I worked as a school social worker in a large metropolitan school district in the San Francisco Bay Area. My work there is best described as that of a generalist responsive to the needs of students, teaching staff, families, and communities. In this role, I worked to support students' normal development in both the academic and the personal domains. I also implemented orchestrated responses to children and families in situations that involved child protection, juvenile justice, family problems, and mental health. A key role for me was to observe these issues early, join with the appropriate stakeholders in designing a responsive web supportive of the positive development

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of students, and reach out to and enlist families as partners in this process. If referrals to outside services were needed, the process was one of "supported referral," where the client's needs that could be met at school were addressed there, while those beyond the reach of the school, such as family dislocation, family violence, problems with addiction and mental illness, for instance, were referred through a careful process to the most appropriate agency. The understanding was that collaboration between the school, the family, and the outside helpers was the desired norm. (Sarvis & Pennekamp, 1970; Freeman & Pennekamp, 1988).

Because German is my first language and because I am comfortable with German customs, I felt right at home when Heidi took me to her office in the County Building and introduced me to her colleagues. Those working in the Child, Youth, and Families County structure confront many of the same issues dealt with by our county agency human services staff, especially in Child Welfare Services. In a session to share experiences arranged by the Supervisor of Child Welfare Services, we quickly found many common denominators. Troubled families look very much alike throughout the Western world, and the complexities of involving them in services voluntarily seem also similar. Obtaining access to scarce resources, such as treatment for a severely emotionally disturbed youngster, tax the ingenuity of the German colleagues, much as they do ours.

What was different, and very interesting to me, is that this County Child Welfare work is anchored in the community in a way I am not familiar with in the United States. Heidi and her colleagues are responsible for a defined population base that is linked to the population residing in given communities. The county population base/catchment area for Heidi and her 7 social work colleagues was 116,462 inhabitants on December 1999, averaging out to 14,500 inhabitants per social worker. The unemployment rate on that date was 17.7% or 34, 377 inhabitants. That ratio is very high, even in comparison to all the other former East German areas. Heidi's population caseload, limited to children, youth and families, lives in two communities. Heidi regularly checks with these communities' city halls as to concerns that may have surfaced there, and, generally, she is part of a communal network, which also involves public health, juvenile justice, the court, and recreation/youth development. Heidi supervises and coordinates with six family workers, who do family outreach in each of the identified communities, and two school social workers assigned to the schools serving the same communities.

The family workers function somewhat like our case managers, eliciting family resources and needs and attempting to coordinate a

service network for each family. The school social workers, officially, are assigned to the schools to attend to the development of after-school resources for children and youth, so that they do not become latchkey children and get in trouble for lack of supervision. However, because these social workers become fixtures on school campuses over time, they told me that teachers soon use them to address student issues beyond the teachers' level of expertise. Over time, trust builds and the role of the school social worker becomes more of a generalist.

School social workers are a fairly recent addition to the school staff in this county. The funding of their salaries is shared by the school administration and City Hall. .This is not universally true across the state, but it is in response to Heidi's work with the two municipalities, which recognize the cost effectiveness of work delivered at the school site. The emphasis of the school social work component is on the upper grades (8^{th} and 9^{th}) in middle schools, where most students are not going on to a university preparation program, but rather to technical and apprenticeship preparation for the world of work. It is at this developmental stage and for this group of youngsters from limited income families that the ambiguity of not knowing how to plan for the future is most troublesome. It is a subset of this adolescent group that confronts the State with the challenges of neo-Nazism, aggression towards refugees, and the increased use of not only alcohol but also drugs, unknown in the former East Germany.

Being responsible for the social welfare of a whole community-based population of children, youth and families, rather than individual cases, differentiates social work in Germany from the work that I know in the United States. Different is also the responsibility of City Hall and the County Welfare Department for the continuum of services to children, youth, and families in their jurisdiction. At least, in theory, it would appear that it is harder for children, youth, and families to fall through the proverbial cracks in Germany. However, staff made it clear that their workloads are larger than they can manage effectively and that resources available for the most complex situations are scarce, at least in their county.

In order to promote use of resources not known in the former East Germany, the county workers, the municipalities, and the private non-profit sector, as well as the schools, engage in many community activities, and organize Family Days and Fairs, where community resources exhibit their offerings, much as is done in the United States in a Health Fair. These events are heavily subsidized and well advertised. Apparently, they are well attended.

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Conclusion

In conclusion, it would appear that Heidi and I and our colleagues in Germany and here in the USA can benefit from each others' ways of organizing very similar work. We, in the United States, probably are more comfortable with individual casework than our German colleagues. We appear to lag behind, however, in taking a community-wide look at identifying systemic family and children's needs, which may underlie individual case problems. In both countries, financing the resources needed by families and communities to support the healthy development of children and youth from birth to young adulthood in our complex and evolving world is of considerable concern.

Both Heidi and I are delighted with our ongoing professional and personal relationship and expect to continue meeting again and again, both here in the United States and in Germany. Many opportunities for such international exchanges exist. Social workers from all over the world are interested in visiting the United States. Direct exchanges are possible. E-mail facilitates communication. Some organizations, such as the Cleveland International Program, which brought Heidi to the United States, provide ongoing possibilities for international activities. For instance, Heidi coordinates a yearly month-long workshop for an international group of social workers under the aegis of the *Internationales Studienprogram*, an outgrowth of the Cleveland International Program. The main workshop language is German, the one language that all participants can use to communicate with one another, whether their home language is German, Russian, Finnish, Swedish, or Hungarian. This is where one can meet social workers from many countries and share with them in depth. If one does not have a month to devote, there are a number of international social work conferences with similar goals. International conferences, such as the Second International Conference for School Social Work that is to take place in May 2003, are a good opportunity for school social workers to become active in international activities. Putting together a calendar of such international events on a website may represent a next step in promoting more international meetings between social workers from different countries. Through such encounters, friendships and personal exchanges become possible, just as Heidi's and mine!

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COMMUNITY NETWORKING FOR SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN: THE GLADES COLLABORATIVE INTERNSHIP PROJECT

Sharron M. Singleton

ABSTRACT

This paper describes the process that has been used to establish a collaborative effort to address the needs of young children with multiple life challenges, while providing a rich learning experience for students in an MSW program. The general impact of the collaborative effort on service provision to elementary school students and their families is highlighted, along with the results of an examination of the process that created and continues to guide and maintain the Glades Collaborative Internship Project.

The exposure of school-age children to life conditions that are less than optimal for growth and development is well documented in the professional literature. Documenting these undesirable life conditions and their results on the educational potential for school-aged children has been the focus of government commissions and child advocacy groups over the past 10 years (Brener, Martindale, & Weist, 2001; Franklin & Streeter, 1995; Illback, 1994; Knitzer, 1996; National Institute of Mental Health, 1999; Office of Technology Assessment, 1991; Wagner, 1995). The evidence points to an increasing need for communities and institutions to pay attention to children through prevention and early intervention strategies that are family focused, comprehensive, and based in coordinated services from community agencies.

Many experts point to the public school as a critical component in the outreach to children and families in need of social and mental health services (Adelman & Taylor, 2000; Anderson, 2000; Herrington & Lazar, 1999; Homonoff & Maltz, 1995; Nobel & Severson, 1995; Pennekamp, 1996; Pryor, Kent, McGunn, & LeRoy, 1996). The school is viewed as a centralizing force for problem recognition and intervention. The rigid boundaries that exist among the educational system and agencies that comprise the social service arena, however, often prohibit a collaborative effort towards the multiple needs of children when using the school as a conduit for service integration (Adelman & Taylor, 2000; Andrews, 1990; Berg-Weger &

Schneider, 1998; Brener et. al, 2001; Franklin & Streeter, 1995; Knitzer, 1996; Pennekamp, 1992; Pryor, et. al, 1996; Torres, Jr., 1996; Wirt & Kirst, 1997). This paper describes the process used to establish a public school-based collaborative effort to address the needs of a population of young children with multiple life challenges.

The Setting

Belle Glade Elementary School is located in a rural area of Palm Beach County, Florida, that is heavily dependent on sugar cane production and farming for its economic base and stability. The community population is largely migrant, under-educated, and collectively presents with a myriad of problems, including poverty, criminal behavior, high rates of substance abuse, incidents of domestic violence, child abuse, HIV and other physical health issues, and unemployment. To further complicate the lives of children and families, there is limited ability of the social service arena to provide needed services. This is evidenced by long waiting lists at each of the community-based social service and mental health agencies (Glades Initiative Management Board, 2001; United Way of Palm Beach County, 2000).

Belle Glade Elementary School serves approximately 800 students from preschool through Grade 5. Ethnically, the school is about 60% African American, 25% Hispanic, and 15% Haitian. Less than 1% of the school's population is Caucasian. It is not unusual for these children to reside in a single-parent home (often that parent is a grandparent) and for the family to be on the waiting list of one or more community agencies for some type of service. The Palm Beach County Public School District is one of few counties in Florida that did not provide school social work services in any of the schools. Thus, children identified with emotional, behavioral, or family problems simply were referred to the overloaded community-based agencies. Whenever the child's issues, behaviors, or problems became more than the school could tolerate, the children generally were removed from the educational setting, and sometimes they were removed from their families (H. Goldstein, personal communication, October 20, 1999). Palm Beach County Public Schools, and especially Belle Glade Elementary, did not have the resources to be helpful to troubled youth and their families.

The Project

The Glades Collaborative Internship Project began in 1996 as a demonstration project to augment and enrich the limited social service resources that were available to the children of Belle Glade Elementary School. Belle Glade was selected as the site for the project because of the recognition by the Children's Services Council (the funding source) that this area was an underserved area and that the children were at higher risk for life issues that interfered with their educational process. The Project has operated year round (regular school year and summer school) since its inception. Each academic year five MSW interns are assigned to the Project (another three are placed in the Project during the summer). The MSW interns, identified by all as "school social work interns," and a clinical social work field instructor are housed at the elementary school and provide comprehensive services to children in the school and their families.

The Project is unique in that it combines two roles -- school social worker and agency social worker. The Project offers a special array of services, using a family-centered model that reflects family choices, goals, and desires. In keeping with the Children's Services Council's philosophy of early intervention for primary prevention, priority for services are given to children from ages 3 to 5, followed by children ages 6 through 11. The services provided include the following: Assessment of child and family functioning and need; care coordination; coordination of special therapeutic services from six of the collaborative agencies (utilizing a single assessment tool which spares families and children from multiple evaluations); individual, group, play, and family therapy; mentoring and support services (through the pairing of elementary school children with high school youth); and parenting training and support. Additionally, the interns are very involved with the children's educational process. They hold conferences with classroom teachers regarding behavioral problems of specific children, work with such children in the classroom, provide behavior management strategy sessions with teachers and children, and initiate and participate in child study meetings.

To date, the Glades Collaborative Internship Project has served over 600 children in more than 110 families. Approximately 40 student interns have worked in the project. Evaluation of the outcome of the services to these children and their families is not the focus of this current research; rather, the goal is to provide the results of an examination of the process, which created and currently guides and maintains the Project. It should be noted that all of the children served by the Project have been retained in the school and that none of the

children have needed to be removed from their homes and placed because of their behaviors. In an area with a high rate of child abuse, the Project has had only one instance of known child abuse in the time that it has been in operation (H. Goldstein, personal communication, March 6, 2002).

Method

Data was collected from the following sources: Glades Collaborative Internship Project Planning Board (GCIPPB) meeting minutes, memos, letters, and reports; and telephone interviews with Planning Board members. All past and present members of the Planning Board were contacted for involvement in the research, and all agreed to participate fully. The interview focused on members' perceptions of the structure and process for the Planning Board. Most of the interviewees became involved with the project during its formative stages and served on the Board at the time of the interview. Content analysis was used to examine all of the documents and the interview transcripts.

Analysis and Interpretation of Data

Several significant themes emerged from the documents and interviews.

Like Minds Were Drawn Together. It appears that the idea for the Glades Collaborative Internship Project grew out of conversations, over a period of time, among a core group of professionals in Palm Beach County. This group included a professor from Barry University School of Social Work, a social worker/administrator from Children's Case Management Organization, Inc., and a social worker from Children's Home Society. These individuals recognized the existence of significant gaps in services for children and their families and seemed frustrated by the existing barriers to addressing those gaps (e.g., fiscal responsibility for services, ownership of the client with multiple agency involvement). Conversations gave way to brainstorming with a specific goal in mind, which was to develop a means for affecting positive change in an under-served population of children and families, while at the same

time providing a learning opportunity for graduate social work students. A potential funding source was identified in the form of the Children's Services Council of Palm Beach County (CSCPBC), an agency that funds and evaluates innovative programs and services that assist children and families to reach their full potential (CSCPBC, 2002). Upon approach, the Children's Services Council indicated a willingness to review a proposal for funding but specified that it focus on children in the Belle Glade community.

The core group of individuals expanded its membership to include representatives from Belle Glade Elementary School and the key social service agencies that operated in the Belle Glade area. The principal of the elementary school was very supportive of the idea of a social work intern unit being established at the school. The Palm Beach County School District gave sanction to the project. The new task force included representatives from Barry University School of Social Work, Children's Case Management Organization, Belle Glade Elementary School, Children's Home Society, Western Palm Beach County Mental Health Clinic, the Multiagency Network for Students with Severe Emotional Disturbance, and Big Brothers/Big Sisters of Palm Beach County. Recruitment of members from these particular agencies occurred almost exclusively through informal, personal contacts in the context of the professional arena. These agencies mirrored one another in terms of their level of involvement in the Belle Glade community and seemed to hold complementary perspectives, which fueled the work of the group. A field instructor for the student unit was hired and this individual also became a member.

Needs. The perspectives of these agencies targeted needs as follows:

- Recognition that there was a diversity of services offered to families and children in Belle Glade and that this diversity sometimes created barriers to services.
- Acknowledgment that the current social service delivery system could not adequately meet the need or demand for services.
- A belief that a collective effort at addressing the gaps in service for children and families was possible, and, in fact, might better serve such a needy population.
- A willingness to try something new and perhaps even unconventional in gathering resources for children and families in Belle Glade.

High Level of Commitment. What stood out most was the level of commitment that the task force members held toward the Project. GCIPPB member selection was not exclusive but resulted in a tight network of agencies that recognized the value of an inter-agency

collaborative and thus, were willing to invest in such an effort. This level of commitment was reflected in the following:

- The willingness of GCIPPB members personally to dedicate the time and energy necessary to bring the project into fruition.
- The willingness of agencies to commit staff time to the collaborative effort.
- A sense of mutuality and trust that the Project "belonged" to all of the participating agencies.
- The willingness of agencies to turn over clients to social work interns.
- Agency-collective participation in and responsibility for every aspect of the Project.

Group Relations. Participants perceived their interactions with one another to be positive and meaningful. They respected one another as individuals and as professionals whose scopes of practice were diverse but complementary. Participants reported feeling welcomed and appreciated in the context of the group and identified a group expectation that everyone had something to offer. Participants reported the existence of a high level of commitment and the readiness of group members to work on problem resolutions. Member differences based on professional background and programs were less of a stumbling block as people were willing to work towards the mutual goal.

Group Process. The GCIPPB is charged with both administrative and clinical guidance for the Project. The process by which work gets done (in both arenas) tends to be very structured and guided by agendas that are generated out of the work of the student unit. Participation in administrative decision-making was perceived to be fairly even with consensus building accomplished through collective discussions. In terms of the clinical review team's work, some participants reported that the intense processing is sometimes frustrating, but such processing avoids hard feelings and forced clinical decisions. In both arenas, there is amenability to compromise among group members and a commitment to listen and acknowledge the validity of what people have to say. The group operated in a relaxed, comfortable atmosphere that encouraged participation and provided support to individual members. While meetings (especially the clinical review meetings) were reported to be long, intense, and sometimes challenging, they were also very rewarding, fast paced, and productively smooth. Board members attributed the nature of the meetings to the collective vision of the group and the professional challenge sparked by the complexities of many of the cases.

Strengths and Limitations of the Process. Limitations noted by respondents centered on the dilemmas encountered when translating

the idea of the student unit into an actual working "agency." Participants felt, however, that the struggles encountered were fairly normal for any beginning project when lots of people and resources from divergent points must be conceptualized and mobilized. The struggles brought the group closer together and resulted in the creation of a well-tuned machine in the form of the GCIPP Board. This collective struggle also led to a richer appreciation for the Project as well as an early agreement among GCIPPB members to "not worry that things were not clear and to trust the process."

A resounding strength communicated was a perception of the exceptional quality of the people involved with the collaborative process and the commitment of members to make the Project work. This spirit of commitment stemmed from the group's primary focus on improving the lives of children and families as well as providing a vehicle of learning for social work students. It is this commitment, respondents believed, which led to virtually no resistance or turf-fighting among members around theoretical issues or planning for the Project.

Agency benefit in the form of team building, greater community awareness, and examination of agency-community fit have been the greatest by-products of the collaborative effort. Many Board members shared the lessons and insights from the Project with their respective agencies. All felt that the experience is likely to lead to future collaboration on other projects. Respondents also felt that there has been a positive impact on the overall Glades community. The collective process has been immensely energizing, because it was not something that has been seen in the community for a very long time. Respondents also felt that parents have become more reachable and involved in the school and thus more involved in the lives of their children. Members also perceived that the learning for students, in turn, has been invaluable.

Discussion

The Glades Collaborative Internship Project is a well thought-out, well-planned, and well-executed process, through which diverse agencies with diverse service delivery goals have been able to work together for a common goal. The commitment to the common vision has resulted in a jointly developed service delivery system that is centered in a setting (the public school) that affords the greatest access for children and their families. The level of involvement by each

agency has resulted in mutual authority, responsibility, and accountability for the success of the project. A high sense of ownership exists among all of the participating agencies. A major resource for the work of the GCIPPB is Children's Services Council of Palm Beach County, which not only provides the funding for the Project but also provides staff support and flexibility for meeting their requirements. This resourcefulness has served to ease many of the typical agency-based worries and allows the work of the GCIPPB to focus solely on the organization and provision of services to children and families in the Belle Glade area.

Since the Planning Board did not need to negotiate among the participating agencies for direct service money, the energies of the Board have focused on administering the project, providing clinical supervision, and figuring out ways to make the system work better.

Replicating the Project

Schools of social work, public school systems, and/or communities that are interested in replicating the Glades Collaborative Internship Project could possibly do so by utilizing the a course of action similar to the following:

- Identify a public school where children, as a collective, are at high risk of struggling academically and socially, because of personal, interpersonal, and community issues. While ideally, a school of social work would take the lead, that is not necessary, as long as the school is willing to become a principle player in the service planning and provision process.
- Identify a school that needs the previous criteria but also one where the principal and staff are committed to and supportive of the concept.
- Identify individuals who possess similar minds and levels of personal-professional commitment and bring them together as a planning board.
- Assess related, community-based social service agencies for internal stability and level of community commitment sufficient to participate in a collaborative effort without concerns about political or fiscal obligations.
- Identify and initiate conversations with a likely funding source, external to any of the potential collaborative agencies, and seek funding for a student unit, including a field instructor.

- Negotiate agreements with the agencies that are part of the collaborative effort, whereby they relinquish primary service responsibility for children and families assisted by the collaborative, but partake in the process by sending a representative to serve on the planning board.
- Make use of the planning board to administrate the unit, provide clinical guidance and insight, and document the work and success of the student unit.

Conclusions

The Glades Collaborative Internship Project speaks to the significant work that can be done on behalf of children and their families by public schools, social service agencies, and schools of social work, especially in areas where school social work services are not a part of the public school system. The management process undertaken by the GCIPPB, for both its administrative and clinical supervision responsibilities, was unfettered by agency-specific mission, discipline-specific philosophy, or fiscal-related concerns. One unanticipated, by-product of the work of the Board has been a forging of new relationships, among the collaborative agencies and a strengthening of existing relationships to the extent that ideas for future collaborative efforts are being generated and worked on. It seems likely that the inclusion of other, currently non-collaborative agencies is a strong possibility for the future, and the larger community of families and children could only benefit.

Subsequent to the start of the Glades Collaborative Internship Project, discussions began among representatives from the Palm Beach County Health Care District, the County Health Department, the School District, Boca Community Hospital, and the Quantum Foundation about the lack of access to health care by children in Palm Beach County and the need for this access to be centered in the public schools (Palm Beach County Health Care District, 2002). These discussions led to the establishment of registered nurses in all public schools in Palm Beach County. By March 1997, the establishment of the Behavioral Health Initiative occurred, where the focus was on placing behavioral health professionals, defined as "bachelor or master level social service providers" (S. Bernstein, personal communication, March 15, 2002), in public schools. Using the Glade's Collaborative Internship Project as the groundwork (some Board members also served on the Behavioral Health Initiative), behavioral health

professionals were placed in 15 elementary public schools in 2000, another 15 were placed into schools in 2001, and 10 more are scheduled to begin in August 2002. The title "behavioral health professional" was used to allow hiring across professions and degree levels; however, of the 30 hired thus far, 18 are social workers, and 12 have their master's degree (S. Bernstein, personal communication, March 15, 2002). Several of the behavioral health professionals are graduates of the Project.

Behavioral health professionals engage in early recognition and assessment of the need for services for elementary school children. They engage in preventive treatment services and empirical outcome evaluation, much the same activity as school social workers in other counties. The legacy of the Glades Collaborative Internship Project can be seen in Palm Beach County's recognition of the need to invest early to meet the needs of children by taking a holistic approach to the educational process.

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CORPORAL PUNISHMENT IN SCHOOLS IN GHANA: A SOCIAL CONCERN

Marie-Antoinette Sossou

ABSTRACT

Corporal punishment has long been a means for both parents and school authorities to discipline their children and students in most part of the world, including Ghana. Though the degree and frequency may vary from place to place, studies have shown that corporal punishment in any form is an act of violence and the display of aggression against children and the violation of their human rights. This paper examines the negative effects of corporal punishment in schools in Ghana in terms of social, psychological, emotional, and educational implications. The paper discusses the adoption of alternative, non-violent forms of discipline, and also suggests the effective involvement of school social workers, parent-teacher associations, and other organizations to advocate for banning corporal punishment in schools in the country.

According to Human Rights Watch, "for many children around the world, violence was a regular part of the school experience. In some countries, school officials routinely use corporal punishment to maintain classroom discipline and to punish children for poor academic performance. In other countries, authorities fail to intervene to protect minority children from harassment and attacks by other students. The failure of school officials to protect children from violence in school denied them their right to be free from all forms of physical or mental violence and the full enjoyment of their right to education" (Human Rights Watch, 1999, p. 432).

This paper examines the use of corporal punishment in the form of caning, slapping, hitting, and other forms of physical punishment in primary and middle schools in Ghana. It also examines some of the psychological and social effects of corporal punishment on children and suggests other alternatives and non-physical approaches to maintaining discipline in schools. In addition, the paper also examines the role of the school social worker in mitigating the problems of corporal punishment in Ghanaian schools.

Ghana, which lies in the center of West African coast, shares borders with the three French-speaking nations of Côte d' Ivoire to the west, Togo to the east, and Burkina Faso to the north. To the south are the Gulf of Guinea and the Atlantic Ocean (Owusu-Ansah & McLaughlin, 1995). A former British colony, Ghana has a total area of 238,533 square kilometers and is about the size of Britain. Its southernmost coast at Cape Three Points is 4° 30' North of the equator. The country extends inland for some 670 kilometers to about 11° North. The distance across the widest part, between longitude 1° 2' East and longitude 3° 15' West measures about 560 kilometers. The Greenwich Meridian, which passes through London, also passes through the eastern part of Ghana at Tema (Owusu-Ansah & McLaughin). Ghana achieved independence on March 6, 1957.

The education system consists of six years of primary or elementary school, three years of junior secondary school, and three years of senior secondary or high school. Universal education remains an unrealized goal, but most children have access to primary and junior secondary schools. There are a number of polytechnic institutions, four universities, and a number of teachers' training colleges (Berry, 1995).

According to Human Rights Watch, corporal punishment in schools "remained widespread and an accepted part of the class room experience for millions of children around the world, where the human rights violations inherent in its use went unrecognized. In many countries, the use of corporal punishment by teachers against children was explicitly authorized by law, making it a legalized form of violence against children" (Human Rights Watch, 1999, p. 432). The United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child (1989) states that the use of corporal punishment against children is incompatible with the Convention on the Rights of the Child. The United Nations Convention against Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (1987) also regards corporal punishment in schools as inhuman on the grounds that it may rise to the level of torture or cruel or degrading treatment or punishment.

Historical and Cultural Context

The history of corporal punishment and other forms of punishment, such as manual labor in schools in Ghana, can be traced to the advent of colonialism and the introduction of formal education by the colonial Christian missionaries along the west coast of Africa (Crowder, 1968). According to Gadzekpo (1999), in most traditional

societies, including Ghana, a certain level of physical and verbal discipline and chastisement in child rearing is considered acceptable. In Ghana, where cultural norms view children as the collective responsibility of society rather than just the responsibility of the child's parents or guardians, other family members often take a hand in raising and disciplining children (Gadzekpo).

The application of community social control and negative sanctions helped to keep people from misbehaving and committing serious crimes. For years, the art of raising children was a communal duty carried out by grandmothers, grandfathers, and aunts, uncles, and neighbors, who lived together under relatively stable and simple circumstances. The value of sharing wisdom and experiences was done through mores, folklore, and religious beliefs in a supernatural supreme being (Nukunya, 1992).

With the advent of colonialism, coupled with advancement and modernization, urbanization, and migration from small rural communities into urban and commercial centres, the traditional family system started suffering from dislocation, and the wisdom and support of the extended family was reduced (Nukunya). The introduction of formal education by the Christian missionaries was based on religious philosophies that focused on character development and morality (Foster, 1965). Discipline became synonymous with punishment, and the most popular form of punishment adopted by these missionaries and their agents was caning of school children.

In Ghana, it was the Basel, Presbyterian, Catholic, and Wesleyan Methodist missionaries who laid the foundation for the Christian church (Owusu-Ansah & McLaughlin, 1995). These missionaries established schools as nurseries of the church, in addition to converting the local people to Christianity (Owusu-Ansah & McLauglin). The early colonial schoolmasters were admonished to beat the devil out of the local primitive children, as God not only sanctions but also mandates that children be punished in order to develop good character and become good Christians. To date, most Ghanaians, irrespective of their religious convictions and beliefs, still continue to support the practice of beating children at home and in school without any questions whatsoever. The biblical quotation of "he who spareth the rod spoileth the child" continues to be used as the guiding principle.

In a national study on violence against women and children in Ghana, it was discovered that cultural norms view children as the collective responsibility of society rather than just the responsibility of the parents or guardians, hence there was nothing wrong with spanking, caning, and banging their heads together when children misbehave (Gadzekpo, 1999). Thus, violence is not only perpetrated by guardians

on children, but may be carried out by other persons in the community as well.

The Practice of Corporal Punishment

According to Webster's New World dictionary (1995), punishment is defined as imposition of a penalty for some faulty or harsh treatment. When the word "punishment" is prefaced by "corporal," the meaning becomes inflicting of pain upon the body. For most school children throughout Ghana, violence is part of their school experience. Teachers use caning, slapping, whipping, or giving a knock on the head as a method of maintaining classroom discipline and to punish children for poor academic performance, lateness to class, or misbehavior. Other reasons for corporal punishment in the classroom are making noise or talking in class, truancy, absenteeism, bullying, fighting, pilfering, disobedience, and tardiness.

The infliction of corporal punishment is routine, arbitrary, and sometime brutal, resulting in open confrontation between some teachers and parents or older siblings of the victim. A very cruel and humiliating form of corporal punishment, which is rarely used in schools but at times is administered by some parents to their female children, is the use of ginger and hot pepper paste mixed together and inserted into the genitalia of the girls. However, two female teachers applied this form of corporal punishment in 1998, to a number of junior high school girls in the city of Accra, the national capital of the country ("Ghana Education," 1998).

According to many Christian advocates of physical punishment, pain should begin to be felt early in life, often in infancy and the first years of childhood, and should continue to be inflicted, in many cases even through adolescence, until children learn obedience and submission to parental authority or until their wills have been broken (Greven, 1990). Hence, this situation is applicable and observable in many homes and schools in Ghana as well. There is no age limit to corporal punishment among school children in Ghana. One can observe young children in nursery and kindergarten being whipped or punished for being naughty and stubborn.

Effects of Corporal Punishment

In Ghana, the argument for the use of corporal punishment in elementary schools is based on the concept of "in loco parentis." This concept refers to the responsibility that teachers assume over school children in the absence of their parents (Maurer, 1981). This has become possible because of the assumption that the school is also an agent of socialization that has equal responsibility of imparting knowledge, beliefs, norms, and acceptable behavior to children. This situation has given unlimited power to teachers over school children during school hours, and opposition to corporal punishment is considered to be unnecessary or likely to be ineffective.

A number of studies have shown the negative effects of corporal punishment. Garrison (1987) states that corporal punishment is an ineffective method of discipline and has major deleterious effects on the physical and mental health of those inflicted. Research notes that corporal punishment constructs an environment of education, which can be described as unproductive, nullifying, and punitive (Bongiovani, 1977; Lynch, 1988). According to Bongiovani and Lynch, children become victims, and there is limited sense of confidence and security. Even those children who are witness to such abuse are robbed of their full learning potential. Students who are witnesses or victims of such abuse can develop low self-esteem, magnified guilt feelings, and the acquisition of anxiety symptoms, which could have baneful results in the psychological and educational development of the students (Hart & Brassard, 1987).

The most common psychological effect of corporal punishment on most school children is the increase in aggressive and violent behavior. A number of studies have attempted to link spanking with problems in the abused victim's later behavior, either during childhood or adulthood. Some, but not all, seemed to have found links between corporal punishment and lower IQs, teenage delinquency, adult criminality, marital conflict, and spousal abuse (Fine, 1999).

According to Maurer (1981), another negative effective of excessive corporal punishment on school children is the lack of the ability of children to communicate effectively with their teachers and colleagues in class due to fear of making a mistake and being punished. With the cane, school children become withdrawn and silent in class. This makes learning ineffective, uncreative, and intellectually unchallenging, as children are discouraged from openly asking questions, and remain passive learners. Some children drop out of school as a result.

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Children also lose trust and respect for their teachers and often develop bitter feelings towards them. This is especially the case when they are beaten for no reason, or are badly beaten and humiliated for small mistakes, or are beaten for no faults of their own, such as nonpayment of school fees or being late to school due to lack of transport. Another negative effective of corporal punishment is that excessive punishment leads to discipline problems in the classrooms (Rogers, 1987). This implies that the children tend to behave only when the teacher is around and develop tricks to outwit the teacher and avoid punishment.

A number of school children have suffered from injuries sustained from excessive beating, especially on the buttocks, legs, and arms and on the heads. This is particularly true in situations where punishment is administered in the heat of anger and the person administering the punishment may not be fully in control of his or her emotions and might apply more force than he or she intended. In case of the schoolgirls who were assaulted by the insertion of hot concoction into their vaginas, it was reported that some of the students fainted and were hospitalized ("Ghana Education," 1998). In a second incident, a 15 year old junior high student fell into coma and died days later after she was subjected to a strenuous corporal punishment of jumping like a frog 150 times ("Editorial,"1999). Though the cause of her death was not directly linked to the punishment, nevertheless, her story exhibits some of the effects of extreme corporal punishment to which children are subjected in their daily lives.

It is presumed that punitive methods of social control, such as corporal punishment, no doubt work, but they have unfortunate by-products, which are quite obvious in the field of education. The school child that is studying to avoid punishment will find other ways of avoiding doing homework. For example, he or she could become a truant or a school dropout. The punishment may lead him or her to attack teachers, vandalizes school property, or become a very hateful, aggressive, and revengeful person. These by-products could be avoided if other alternative methods of punishment are adopted and applied by teachers in the classrooms.

Global Attempts at Eradicating Corporal Punishment

The "spare the rod and spoil the child" philosophy has been deeply entrenched in Ghanaian child rearing. This situation has encouraged many parents and other adults caring for children to beat,

hit, and hurt their children all in the name of discipline. A national survey is needed to assess the effects of corporal punishment and other violent behaviors meted out to school children in order to help in mounting an effective campaign against corporal punishment. Until such a study is done, one cannot categorically state that Ghanaian children are better off in terms of discipline and good behavior than children in countries in which corporal punishment has been prohibited by law both in the homes and schools.

According to Parenting Coalition International (2000), the Committee on the Rights of the Child, the treaty body for the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child has continued to recommend prohibition of all corporal punishment and public education in positive, non-violent discipline from states in all continents. In nine European countries (Austria, Croatia, Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Latvia, Norway and Sweden), there are explicit bans on corporal punishment by parents and all other caregivers.

In the United States, corporal punishment is declining, and, according to a 1999 survey by Prevent Child Abuse America, only 41% of parents said that they have spanked or hit their children in the previous year (Block, 2000). According to Block, a majority of childcare facilities for young children, including government regulated foster care, childcare centers, institutions, and family day care have also banned the use of corporal punishment. According to the United States Department of Education, the number of school paddling also is declining, and there is a drop of nearly 100,000 incidents from the previous school years in 1997-1998 (Block).

In Africa, abolition of school corporal punishment is spreading quickly, and a number of countries such as Zambia, Kenya, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, and South Africa are making efforts toward the banning of corporal punishment in schools (Parenting Coalition International, 2000). The banning of corporal punishment in schools in Ghana is now a significant challenge for all concerned citizens, especially in view of the fact that Ghana is one of the first countries to ratify the Convention on the Rights of the Child. The Ghana Education Service must help teachers handle behavioral problems in the classrooms, by providing special services to children with problems. Teachers need on-the-job training programs to assist them in identifying and practicing alternative disciplinary measures based on appropriate methods for the control of behavior in schools rather than the use of corporal punishment. Studies have shown that temporary removal from classroom, detention after school, withdrawal of privileges, imposition of special tasks, and even physical restraint, when necessary, are some

of the appropriate methods for the control of behavior when applied judiciously (National Education Association, 2000).

An important technique in maintaining classroom control is to develop a milieu of effective communication, in which the teacher displays an attitude of respect for the children. Children must be taught in an environment that clearly states that they are valued and understood. The emphasis should be on positive educational exchanges between teachers and children in the classroom. An effective relationship also should be developed between school officials, parents, and students, so as to develop sensible rules, with appropriate consequences for unacceptable behaviors in the classroom. It is important that teachers should have specialized resources, such as school social work, available within their schools and communities. This is necessary so that children with special needs and problems could be identified and helped instead of being punished for poor academic performance (Donnellan, LaVigna, Negri-Shoultz, & Fassbender, 1988).

Alternative Methods and the Involvement of School Social Workers

Social work in Ghana started with the activities of three groups–namely, Christian missionaries, voluntary agencies, and tribal societies. These groups, working closely with ethnic societies, established various charities for families in need (Gold Coast, 1954). In 1940, a Colonial Development Act gave Social work official status and moved it from the private sector to the central government (Gold Coast).

School social work was initiated as a program by the Department of Social Welfare in the early 1950s to provide social and rehabilitative services to young delinquents and also to help both parents and teachers maintain, improve, and deal with problems connected with the education of children (Sossou & Daniels, 2002). Presently, in Ghana, school social workers that are now professionally trained in social work perform five main services to schools. These are as follows: providing social services to school children; providing social services to teachers and nonteaching staff members; developing collaborative services between the home and school; developing partnerships with community agencies; and establishing parent-teacher associations (Sossou & Daniels). Under the function of services to school children, the school social worker is responsible for developing

tangible solutions to help solve the social, emotional, and physical problems that compromise the educational development of the child in the school environment. Some of the problems faced by school children in Ghana are poor academic performance, irregular school attendance, street and child labor problems, lack of parental care and supervision, malnutrition, and exposure to moral and physical danger. Full utilization of trained school social workers within the Ghana Education system would help teachers understand the psycho-social problems of children and their families. Social work services also would help to remove some of the factors in students' lives that contribute to discipline problems in the classroom.

It is also the responsibility and obligation of school social workers to campaign against the use of corporal punishment in schools in Ghana. The Ghana Education Service School Welfare Officers Association is a key professional group in leading the campaign against corporal punishment. School social workers as professionals are ethically committed, according to the Ghana Association of Social Workers ethical code, to create awareness of the detrimental effects of inhumane treatment on the well-being of children, and also to promote justice and human rights, which are also children's rights. There is also the need for revitalization of the parent and teachers associations, under the leadership of school social workers, to focus on issues of children's general welfare both at school and at home, instead of using these associations only for development projects in the schools. Others, including professional groups of child psychologists, community leaders, and child advocacy agencies, such as the Ghana National Commission on Children and Concerned Parents' Association against Caning, can educate parents, teachers, and school children about the fundamental human rights of children and the need to protect them from inhuman treatment and child abuse.

Conclusion

Corporal punishment in public and private schools is perhaps one of the best examples of the acceptance and promotion of violence and abuse against children. The purpose of education, as enshrined in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, should be the development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and preparation for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, and tolerance. It is now time for effective social education programs spearheaded by school social

workers to educate both parents and teachers towards the eradication of corporal punishment in schools in Ghana.

In 1998, Ghana passed a children's bill, which recognized the children of Ghana as human beings with human rights, and made provision for protecting their interest and welfare. Unfortunately, the bill falls short of categorically banning corporal punishment in schools. It is, therefore, essential and morally imperative for all concerned parents and nongovernmental organizations dealing with children's issues, together with school social workers, to engage in effective advocacy toward the banning of corporal punishment and other abusive and violent crimes against the children of Ghana. This can be done by calling for effective implementation of the entire national legislation and international conventions that are in the best interest of the children.

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BOOK REVIEW

SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK WORLDWIDE
Marion Huxtable and Eric Blyth, Editors. Washington, DC: NASW Press, 2002, 259 pages.

Reviewed by *Gary Lee Shaffer*

School Social Work Worldwide provides a stimulating description of school social work practice in 12 countries or geographic regions. Organized to invite comparison, each chapter provides the reader with demographic, political and social trends, descriptions of the educational system, the history and role of school social work practice, and policy and practice issues in need of future attention. Commonalities and differences reflect national traditions, political influences, the social environment, and the status and support provided the helping professions. Huxtable and Blyth present an excellent overview of the development of school social work and a summarization of the book's common themes and trends.

The challenges facing school social work practitioners are strikingly similar and well documented by the contributors. The editors conclude that

> . . . children with disabilities are often excluded from regular schools; children from ethnic or other minority groups are still marginalized; poor children still do not reach their potential; family problems such as divorce affect children's adjustment; violence of various kinds affects students both in and out of school; inter-ethnic conflicts develop within schools; and schools have not adapted sufficiently to meet students' changing needs. (pp. 233-234)

In most of the nations and regions examined, school social work practice developed from earlier school attendance responsibilities, and in many localities this task remains primary. But the contributors also demonstrate that school social work roles and responsibilities have expanded far beyond this primary function and continue to evolve. School-linked social, health, and mental health services are growing rapidly in the United States; community oriented prevention is being stressed in the Nordic countries; crisis intervention, consultation, and service coordination take a primary role in Canada; and psychotherapy is prominent in Korea.

Many interesting comparisons can be made among the nations and regions that are explored. What roles do teachers play in the delivery of social services? Are school social work services viewed as necessary in the schools? Do national or local legislation support or impede school social work activities? Do social work practitioners in the schools receive specialized or indeed any training in school social work? How are programs funded? How are school social work services organized and delivered?

One example will be presented here. In the United States, school social work practitioners are employed primarily by and based in the public schools. The current National Association of Social Workers' (1992) *Standards for School Social Work Services* and School Social Work Association of America (SSWAA) policy strongly support this practice. Services in the United Kingdom, Germany, Finland, and other identified regions, however, demonstrate that alternative models exist and are strongly supported. Employed and based in local governmental offices, community service centers, child and youth welfare programs, and non-governmental organizations, social workers and human service workers provide a wide range of traditional and nontraditional interventions that American practitioners would identify as school social work services.

Large youth populations, significant migrant and immigrant relocations, under-enrollment in schools, and child labor abuses remain daunting challenges for many nations. Discrimination against girls and those with special needs place educational opportunities beyond the reach of many youth. Unfortunately, as the editors assert, most school social workers are practicing in industrialized nations, and most of the world's children do not receive needed school social work services or advocacy. School social work practice, still in its infancy in many areas of the world, will benefit greatly from the innovations, school social work practice experiences, and research highlighted in *School Social Work Worldwide*. Many similar publications are needed.

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ABOUT THE REVIEWER

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BOOK REVIEW

ZLATA'S DIARY
Zlata Filipovic. New York: Penguin Books, 1994, 194 pages.

Reviewed by *Dea Ellen Epley Birtwistle*

Why review a particular book for the *Journal of School Social Work*? One criterion may be that once the school social worker loans a copy to an educator, it cannot be located for several months due to the high number of personnel who want to read it. *Zlata's Diary* is one such book. It is not gathering dust in a curriculum lab but is being read frequently. School social workers use diaries, biographies, and fiction with students and teachers as a tool for personal and school change. *Zlata's Diary* is serving as a catalyst, raising the awareness of the need for educators to respond to cultural diversity in schools.

My midwestern rural community of 30,000 people has experienced an influx of students from Bosnia due to Bosnian refugees being recruited to work in a local meat packing plant. *Zlata's Diary* has been an effective means of providing teachers with both cultural information and an understanding of the trauma of refugee children's lives. The simplicity and directness of the writing make the book appealing for a diverse readership. School social workers working with teachers, classroom, and families are well positioned to guide these discussions of student trauma and cultural adjustment.

Zlata's Diary is the captivating personal journal of a girl from Bosnia. Zlata starts her diary on September 21, 1991, and writes it during her 11th, 12th, and 13th years. This extraordinary girl provides the reader with glimpses of life as a young person in a country that is besieged by civil war. Her daily school and family routines are positioned against the backdrop of the growing danger of venturing outside her home due to military shelling. Zlata's family copes with electrical outages, food shortages, and diminishing social support. She is no longer able to go to school, and her acquaintances, her friends and neighbors, and parents' co-workers have been killed or leave for safer surroundings.

Zlata's Diary is a poignant reflection of humanity. Zlata, who has the same interest in birthday parties, music, MTV, favorite foods, and school subjects as all adolescents, epitomizes the commonality of all children across cultures. Her comments about the political nature of her country's conflict and her disbelief that there should be fighting

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between groups of people, who are not truly different but the same, are simple but profound reflections about the strength of diversity. Her commentary should propel us all to examine the subtle ways intolerance and violence intrude into our day-to-day lives.

Adolescents can relate to Zlata, as she is also a middle schooler. This similarity can be a springboard for school social workers who are or might be discussing violence with adolescents. Zlata's comments are modern and real. When students read Zlata's remarks about the despair and the stupidity of war, it reflects their thoughts of turbulence and chaos about the post-September 11th world. They also can identify with the strength and perseverance that are needed to surmount a tragedy.

Zlata writes a story of the loss of friends, school, home, community, and country. The school social worker can use her story to interpret to educators the impact of these intense changes on a student's adjustment to a new school setting. As evidenced in Zlata's comments, school is a vital aspect of her culture. The school social worker can reinforce this value on education while working with families from Bosnia, thus strengthening the home and school connection.

As a school social worker, I found Zlata's motivation to attend school and her enjoyment of teachers and school friends to be affirming. Reading her diary, one cannot help but think of strength-based models of social work. Zlata has individual flexibility in occupying her time when she was no longer permitted to go to school. The resilience of the family to rearrange their living space to avoid bedroom windows becoming glass daggers during shellings, and the family hiding in a cellar during attacks stand out as strengths. The determination of her neighborhood community to communicate and support each other are resounding examples of assets demonstrated during a crisis. Zlata's story illustrates the potential that all of us have to change and survive in the midst of adversity.

ABOUT THE REVIEWER

Dea Ellen Epley Birtwistle, MSW, SSWS, LISW, is the Book Review Editor for the *Journal of School Social Work* and a school social worker for Northern Trails Area Education Agency, Clear Lake, Iowa.

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POSTSCRIPT

We express deep appreciation to Marion Huxtable, Guest Editor of this International Issue, for the work that she has done to bring this issue of the *Journal* to fruition. Marion recently co-edited *School Social Work Worldwide*, is a member of the Editorial Board of this *Journal*, and was long-time Consulting Editor of *Social Work in Education* (now *Children & Schools: A Journal of Social Work Practice)*. A school social worker for 28 years in Arizona, Marion is also the President of the Western Alliance of School Social Work organizations and Past President of the School Social Work Association of Arizona. We salute Marion–the Guest Editor–for a job well-done.

While we have assumed responsibility for final editing, production, and distribution of this issue, Marion has been the prime mover. She, through her numerous international contacts, contacted and worked with the authors to bring their scholarship to light. This international issue of the *Journal of School Social Work* is a first for the *Journal*. Thank you, Marion Huxtable.

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